

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



00000966514





Class HB2197
Book N7A5
1911

REPORT
OF THE
NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION
ON
CONGESTION
OF POPULATION

Transmitted to the
MAYOR and THE BOARD OF ALDERMEN

FEBRUARY 28, 1911

NEW YORK:
LECOUVER PRESS COMPANY,
No. 51 VESEY STREET.
1911.

7132197
1911

NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION.

The Hon. Jacob A. Cantor, Chairman.

Alderman James E. Campbell, Vice-Chairman.

Alderman Stephen Callaghan,

John Adikes,

Alderman Alexander Dujat,

Russell Bleecker,

Alderman William Fink,

Clement J. Driscoll,

Alderman James Hamilton,

Gilbert Elliott,

Alderman Tristram B. Johnson,

John J. Flynn,

Alderman James J. Mulhearn,

Frank J. Goodnow,

Alderman W. Augustus Shipley,

Allan Robinson,

Alderman Edwin W. Sohmer,

Charles Schaefer, Jr.,

Alderman Louis Wendel, Jr.

Benjamin C. Marsh, Secretary.

See p. 2

REPORT

OF THE

New York City Commission on Congestion of Population

New York, February 28, 1911.

To the Honorable WILLIAM J. GAYNOR, Mayor of The City of New York, and to the Honorable Board of Aldermen of The City of New York:

Gentlemen—The New York City Commission on Congestion of Population was appointed by the Mayor May 17, 1910, in pursuance of the following resolution of the honorable Board of Aldermen of The City of New York, adopted April 12, 1910:

Resolved, That his honor the Mayor be and he is hereby requested to appoint a commission of nineteen, of which there shall be ten members of the Board of Aldermen, viz.: three from the Borough of Manhattan, two each from the Boroughs of Brooklyn, The Bronx and Queens, and one from the Borough of Richmond, together with such persons of known experience and prominence, not to exceed the number of nine, who shall prepare a comprehensive plan for the present relief and future prevention of congestion of population in The City of New York; that such Commission be authorized and empowered to employ such expert assistants as may be deemed necessary in the prosecution of the work, and that it shall report to the Mayor and the Board of Aldermen within ninety days after appointment by his honor the Mayor. By subsequent resolution of the Board of Aldermen, the time to make the report was extended to March 14, 1911.

Upon the organization of your Commission it was deemed advisable to appoint the following committees in order to more effectively prosecute the investigations which the general problem required, and to make the inquiry as broad and as thorough as possible:

1. Committee on Parks, Playgrounds, Schools and Recreation Centres.
2. Committee on Streets and Highways.
3. Committee on Transit, Docks and Ferries.
4. Committee on Housing Conditions, Regulation of Buildings and locating New Settlements.
5. Committee on Factories.
6. Committee on Taxation.
7. Committee on Legislation.
8. Committee on Public Health.
9. Committee on Immigration.
10. Committee on Labor and Wages.
11. Committee on Charities.
12. Committee on Public Squares and Buildings.
13. Committee on Crime and Delinquency.

The Commission as well as the various committees held a large number of meetings to which invitations were extended to all officials, individuals and societies, including experts, who had any information to impart and who it was believed possessed knowledge bearing on any or all subjects relating to the general problem, while the Commission itself made its own inquiries, examinations and investigations. In all, the Commission held twenty-one meetings and the committees fifty-one meetings. One hundred and sixty-four persons appeared, including heads of departments and numerous City officers whose jurisdiction extended over some part of the work considered by the Commission. A personal examination was conducted in the congested districts of Manhattan and The Bronx, together with a close inspection of the water-

fronts and the waterways of all the boroughs. The attention of the Commission was directed to the extensive plant of the Bush Terminal Company in South Brooklyn as being the most recent and successful attempt to locate a new settlement for factories, housing for persons employed therein, distribution of merchandise both by rail and water to serve as an object lesson as to what could be done in the way of removing families from congested districts and furnishing them better and healthier housings elsewhere, by removing factories from the same congested neighborhood.

While the field of investigation was extensive, as will be noted, it was deemed wise to cover every civic proposition which related directly or indirectly to the several problems under consideration. The statistics presented in this report were either official or were derived from the most trustworthy sources.

The Commission therefore submits this report under five separate and distinct headings, namely:

- I. Conditions of Congestion of Population Generally Throughout the City.
- II. Effects of Congestion of Population and Room Overcrowding.
- III. Causes of Congestion and Room Overcrowding.
- IV. Methods Adopted both in This Country and in Foreign Countries to prevent Congestion of Population and Room Overcrowding.
- V. Recommendations for Relieving the Present and Preventing Future Congestion of Population and Room Overcrowding in This City.

We also submit proposed legislative bills and aldermanic ordinances embodying such recommendations as in the judgment of the Commission will, if enacted into law, prove effective. We also submit the full reports of the various committees with their statements and recommendations to the Commission.

The Commission have also much material which they have not presented but which is at the disposition of the Mayor and the Board of Aldermen.

I. CONDITIONS OF CONGESTION OF POPULATION THROUGHOUT THE CITY.

It is necessary at the beginning of this report to distinguish between "concentration" of population and "congestion" of population. The former term implies the presence within a limited area of a large population; the latter term, the overloading of land. Thus it would be possible to have in the 209,218 acres of Greater New York 10,460,900 people with a density of only 50 to the acre throughout the City, or more than twice the present population. This would represent marked concentration of population, but with any even distribution of population throughout the five boroughs would not involve any congestion of population. New York City might have a much larger population within its present boundaries without any congestion.

Congestion of population is a term about the meaning of which there is undoubtedly great difference of opinion. In this report the term will be used as indicative of conditions of population which are conducive to insanitary or immoral living. The sections in which such conditions exist will be designated as "Congested Sections."

It may at the outset be stated that there is no legal limit set to the population which may exist in the City, with two exceptions:

First: By the Factory Law at least 250 cubic feet of air must be provided for each worker.

Second: The Tenement House Law requires that rooms in tenement houses shall not be so overcrowded that there shall be afforded less than 400 cubic feet of air to each adult and 200 cubic feet of air to each child under twelve years of age occupying such rooms.

While there are thus no legal limits set to the number of people who may either work or live in the City or any particular section thereof, the structural requirements of the building law combined with certain requirements of the Tenement House Law, limit the population which may be housed in the most congested sections, if these laws are complied with. These limits are ordinarily:

- (1) A density of population of 1,300 to the acre (including within that area half the acreage of the streets upon which the house stands) in tenements six stories high, although double this density is lawful on the widest streets.
- (2) A floor area of 260 square feet and a space of 2,340 cubic feet for each apartment; that is, two rooms 7 by 10 feet, and one room 10 by 12 feet with a height of 9 feet, clear in all rooms, from floor to ceiling.
- (3) A lot occupancy of ninety per centum of corner lots and seventy per centum of interior lots and in exceptional cases of slightly more.
- (4) In six-story tenements under existing laws it is possible that only one room out of four will obtain an adequate supply of sunshine.

These laws have a practical effect, however, only upon tenement houses. Thus it is possible to cover an entire plot of land adjacent to a tenement house by a factory or warehouse of almost any height. In this way a tenement house may be deprived

not only of light but of ventilation, for the yards or shafts become enclosed ducts. In certain blocks in the Borough of Manhattan no through ventilation can be had by reason of the fact that these various buildings surround the tenement house.

These limits to the population and to the requirements of tenement houses have been, it must be remembered, operative only since 1901. As the Tenement House Law passed that year was not retroactive in effect, the then existing conditions of congestion of population, so far as they exceeded the limits fixed by that law, were not changed. The result has been that in many sections conditions inferior to those sought to be secured by the existing law are still quite commonly to be found.

Many thousands of the old type of tenement house are still standing in three Boroughs with many dark rooms due to the narrowness of light or vent shafts and courts, and the height of the buildings. A large proportion of this class of houses is located in the older and more densely populated sections of Manhattan. Some of these houses have the interior light or vent shafts covered with skylights, and others borrow the light for the interior rooms from the outer rooms through windows far too small properly to ventilate the outer rooms themselves.

These efforts to limit by law congestion of population have, however, in many cases and in the most congested sections been nullified by the overcrowding of rooms beyond the legal limits.

This overcrowding of rooms is to be found both in the tenement houses of the old and new type, and also in the rooms of one- and two-family houses, which under the present building laws need not be provided with any means of ventilation to the outer air.

The requirement as to cubic air space which shall be provided for each person is so low that the seven (7) by ten (10) foot room which is permitted under the Tenement House Law is legally adequate for one adult and one minor under twelve.

It is a striking fact borne out by the Commission's investigation that it would be possible to house practically all of the population of New York City with a normal increase for several decades in three-family tenements and two-family houses, and a large proportion of the families could have at least a small garden, but notwithstanding this possibility, conditions in New York are highly congested. In 1901 the greatest density of population in any borough of London was 182.3 per acre and for Greater London 14.8.

Mr. Lawrence Veiller, a well-known housing expert, wrote in 1905: "No conception of the existing conditions can be obtained from any general statements. To say that the lower East Side of New York is the most densely populated spot in the habitable globe gives no adequate idea of the real conditions. To say that in one section of the City the density of population is 1,000 to the acre and that the greatest density of population in the most densely populated part of Bombay is but 759 to the acre, in Prague 485 to the acre, in Paris 434, in London 365, in Glasgow 350, in Calcutta 204, gives one no adequate realization of the state of affairs. No more does it to say that in many city blocks on the East Side there is often a population of from 2,000 to 3,000 persons, a population equal to that of a good-sized village. The only way that one can understand the real conditions is to go down into the streets of these districts and see the thousands of persons thronging them and making them impassable. So congested have become the conditions of some of the quarters of this City that it is not an exaggeration to say that there are more people living there than the land or the atmosphere can with safety sustain. *The limits have not only been reached but have long been passed.*"

In his book, "The Housing Problem," published in 1910, Mr. Veiller makes the serious charge: "The conditions in New York are without parallel in the civilized world. In no city of Europe, not in Naples nor in Rome, neither in London nor in Paris, neither in Berlin, Vienna nor Buda-Pesth, not in Constantinople, nor in St. Petersburg, not in ancient Edinburgh nor modern Glasgow, not in heathen Canton nor Bombay, are to be found such conditions as prevail in modern, enlightened, twentieth century, Christian New York. In no other city is the mass of the working population housed as it is in New York, in tall tenement houses, extending up into the air fifty or sixty feet, and stretching for miles in every direction as far as the eye can reach. In no other city are there the same appalling conditions with regard to lack of light and air in the homes of the poor. In no other city is there so great congestion and overcrowding. In no other city do the poor so suffer from excessive rents; in no other city are the conditions of city life so complex. Nowhere are the evils of modern life so varied, nowhere are the problems so difficult of solution."

The Commission have investigated many phases and conditions of this congestion. It is apparent that the congestion to which Mr. Veiller referred in 1905 is increasing in the sections of the city which had even in that year the greatest density of population per acre.

1. *Density of Population Per Acre in Large Areas.*

In 1905, 742,135 people lived on 2,418.5 acres south of 14th st. in Manhattan, at a density for the entire area of 306.8 per acre. Between 1905 and 1910 the population of this area had increased by 27,165 to a total of 769,300, and the density per acre had increased by 11.2 per acre to 318 per acre. In 1905 18.48 per cent. of the total population of New York City were living in 1.15 per cent. of the total area of the City, and by 1910 this percentage had fallen to 16.13 per cent. of the City's population in spite of the fact that the increase in density of the population per acre had increased 11.2 in the five years. This increase of population in these five years was five times as great as the total number of persons per acre in 1910, in both the Boroughs of Queens and of Richmond, and this although during these five years scores of high multiple family tenements were torn down for public improvements, notably the approaches of the Manhattan and Williamsburgh bridges.

In 1905 slightly over one-sixth and in 1910 slightly under one-sixth of the City's entire population were living below 14th st. in Manhattan on one-eighty-seventh of the City's area. It must be borne in mind, too, that in this district are located factories employing nearly one-half of the total number of workers in factories in the City and a large proportion of the office buildings of the City.

In 1910 375,316 people, 7.86 per cent, about one-thirteenth, of the City's population lived in the Tenth, Eleventh and the Seventeenth Wards of Manhattan at a density of over 600 to the acre, 64,651 people or 1.34 per cent of the City's population lived in the Thirteenth Ward of Manhattan at an average density of 591.3 to the acre, 102,108 people, 2.11 per cent. of the City's population, lived in the Seventh Ward of Manhattan, at an average density of 495.6 per acre.

One million four hundred and fifty thousand eight hundred and thirty-eight people, 30.43 per cent., nearly one-third of the City's population, lived in the Twelfth, Fifteenth, Eighteenth and Twenty-second Wards of Manhattan and the Tenth, Thirteenth, Fourteenth, Fifteenth, Nineteenth, Twenty-fifth and Twenty-eighth Wards of Brooklyn, at a density of 100 to 149 to the acre. One million one thousand twenty-three people, 20.99 per cent., approximately one-fifth of the City's population, lived in the Second and Third Wards of Manhattan, the Twenty-ninth, Thirtieth, Thirty-first and Thirty-second Wards of Brooklyn, and in the Boroughs of Richmond, Queens and The Bronx, at a density of 25 per acre. The large acreage of the Wards in The Bronx, Richmond and Queens, however, makes the density per acre of relatively little importance for reasons to be discussed later. The Tenth, Eleventh and Seventeenth Wards of Manhattan had an average density of population per acre of over 600, the highest being the Seventeenth, with 647.8, while the Thirteenth had 593.1 and the Seventh 495.3. Three wards in Manhattan had a density of between 200 and 299, and the Sixteenth Ward in Brooklyn 278.8 per acre, while no other wards had a density of over 200 to the acre, although five wards in Brooklyn had a density of over 140 per acre. The maximum density of Queens, in the First Ward, was only 13.3.

Population of Each Borough in New York in 1900, 1905 and 1910, and Density Per Acre and Increase From 1905 to 1910.

Borough.	Population 1900.	Density Per Acre.	Population 1905.	Density Per Acre.	Population 1910.	Increase in Density	
						Density Per Acre.	Density Per Acre
Manhattan	1,850,093	131.8	2,112,380	149.8	2,231,542	166.1	15.6
The Bronx	200,507	7.7	271,630	10.4	430,980	16.5	6.1
Brooklyn	1,166,582	23.48	1,358,686	27.27	1,634,351	32.89	5.5
Queens	158,999	1.8	198,240	2.3	204,041	2.46	.4
Richmond	67,021	1.8	72,845	1.9	85,969	2.34	.3
Greater New York	3,437,202	16.4	4,013,781	19.1	4,766,883	22.7	3.5

2. *Block Density Per Acre in Different Boroughs.*

The density of population per acre of a ward or any large area may be extremely misleading both because the areas of wards vary so greatly, as from 78 acres in the Second Ward of Manhattan to 30,800 acres in the Fourth Ward of Queens, and because a small part of a ward may be very closely built up with high tenements where the larger part of the ward is entirely unimproved. These facts reduce the density for the entire area to a minimum most misleading. The density of population per acre in blocks is therefore probably the most accurate measure of actual density.

There were in Manhattan, in 1905, 122 blocks with a density of 750 to the acre, and 30 blocks with a density of 1,000 or over to the acre, counting in the acreage of such blocks one-half of the area of the bounding streets. In 1905 the average density per acre of all these blocks was 967, in 1910 it had fallen to 952, a decrease of 15 per acre, the population of all the blocks had fallen from 308,396 in 1905 to 303,839 in 1910—that is, 4,557. Fifty-four of the blocks showed a decrease in population, the most marked case being the block bounded by W. 61st and 62d sts., Amsterdam and West End aves., whose population fell in the five years from 6,173 to 3,501, a total reduction of 2,672, or nearly three-fifths of the total decrease in population of the entire 122 blocks. The density of population of this block fell from 1,145 to 649 per acre, a reduction of 496 per acre. The block with the largest increase in population is that bounded by Grand, Broome, Ridge and Pitt sts., whose population increased from 1905 to 1910 from 1,843 to 2,552—that is, by 709, and whose density of population increased from 910 to 1,260, or 350 per acre. This block is in the centre of the congested East Side.

Of the fifty-four blocks whose population decreased from 1905 to 1910:

- The density per acre of 24 blocks decreased under 50 per acre.
- The density per acre of 14 blocks decreased from 50 to 100 per acre.
- The density per acre of 7 blocks decreased from 101 to 200 per acre.
- The density per acre of 1 block decreased from 201 to 300 per acre.
- The density per acre of 4 blocks decreased from 300 to 400 per acre.
- The density per acre of 4 blocks decreased over 400 per acre.

Of the sixty-five blocks whose population increased from 1905 to 1910:

- The density per acre of 27 blocks increased under 50 per acre.
- The density per acre of 22 blocks increased from 50 to 100 per acre.
- The density per acre of 9 blocks increased from 101 to 200 per acre.
- The density per acre of 5 blocks increased from 300 to 301 per acre.
- The density per acre of 1 block increased over 400.

The density of population of one block remained stationary, and information could not be secured about the other three.

Only 4 of the 122 blocks which had in 1905 a density of over 750 to the acre are above 14th st.

Of the 114 blocks below 14th st. which had in 1905 a density of 750 or over per acre, the population of 62 increased, and of 52 decreased, from 1905 to 1910. The total population in these blocks decreased from 1905 to 1910 by 2,393, while the total population south of 14th st. increased 27,165.

The reasons for the fluctuation of density in blocks are varied in some blocks, as has been noted; buildings were demolished to make way for public improvements, in others tenements have given way to factories and buildings for other business and commercial purposes. The most significant points, however, regarding the shifts of population below 14th st., in Manhattan—the most congested area in the world—are these: Frequently a block whose population has increased materially is only a short distance from a block whose population has decreased. Only sixteen of the blocks whose population decreased had a density of population in 1910 even of under 650 per acre, while the density of most of the blocks was still nearly 700 to the acre; that is, they were still congested blocks. On the other hand, nearly half of the blocks overloaded with population in 1905 increased in density by a large percentage in the five years under review.

The deficit in park area, the overcrowding of streets and the evils of overcrowded school rooms and part time, are not relieved by the removal of a few hundred people from one congested block to another, or by permitting a few hundred new arrivals to still further crowd already crowded blocks. The fluctuation of density of 118 blocks out of a total of 660 blocks below 14th st., most of which were in 1905 crowded above the safety point when used for tenement purposes, is significant chiefly as emphasizing the general condition of this crowded tenement district and the evolution of congestion under the present Tenement House, Building, and Taxation laws.

A study of the changes in density of population from 1905 to 1910 of twenty-eight important blocks in the lower part of The Bronx which had in 1905 a population of 1,000 or over, is even more significant because near many of these very blocks are blocks practically unimproved, and within walking distance of some are scores of acres of vacant land.

In 1905 the total population of these twenty-eight blocks was 37,241, in 1910 it had increased to 42,897, a gain of 5,656. The average density per acre of all the blocks was 360 in 1905, and 414 in 1910, an increase of 54 per acre, or over one-seventh in the five years. The population of twenty blocks just three-quarters increased during this period; that of eight decreased.

Three blocks had in 1910 a density per acre of over 600, as follows: The block bounded by Kelly st., Westchester, Wales and Robbins aves., of 633; the block bounded by E. 146th and 147th sts., St. Ann's and Brooks aves, of 610; the block bounded by E. 136th and 137th sts., Willis ave. and Brown place, of 607. The population of the first of these increased in the five years from 1,227 to 1,633, and the population of the block bounded by E. 140th and E. 141st sts., Willis and Brooks aves., increased from 1,601 to 2,298—that is, by 697, or over two-fifths. The increase in density of only eight of the blocks was under 50 per acre, of seven between 50 and 100, of four between 101 and 200, and of one over 200, while the decrease in density of six out of seven blocks was under 50 per acre. Several blocks in The Bronx are rapidly becoming as densely populated as the great majority of the congested tenement blocks in Manhattan, and these Bronx blocks are also occupied chiefly by artisans and factory operatives and laborers.

The Sixteenth Ward of Brooklyn had in 1905 a population of 61,136, with an average density per acre of 249.3. By 1910 the population increased to 68,253, the density to 278.8 per acre.

There were in 1905 twenty-three blocks in this 16th ward with a density of 300 per acre or over. The average density per acre of all of these blocks in 1905 was 365, and in 1910 was 401, an increase of 36 per acre, or about 9 per cent. Six of the twenty-three blocks had a density of between 300 and 350 per acre, eight of between 351 and 400, five of between 401 and 450, two of between 451 and 500, while the block bounded by Boerum, McKibben and Humboldt Sts. and Graham ave. had a density of 540 per acre, and the block bounded by Boerum st., McKibben st., Bushwick ave. and Humboldt ave. a density of 495 per acre. The same fluctuation in density of individual blocks occurred in this period as in the blocks in Manhattan which had in 1905 a density of 750 per acre or over, but the net density of population per acre of the 244.8 acres of the ward—the most densely populated in Brooklyn—nevertheless increased by nearly 30 people per acre.

Of the twenty-three blocks under consideration, nearly half decreased in density, but nine of them by under 50 per acre and only two by over 50, none by over 100. The block bounded by Boerum and McKibben and Humboldt Sts. and Graham ave. increased in density by 174 per acre.

Six of the twenty-three blocks increased under 50 per acre, three between 50 and 100, and three between 101 and 200. A large proportion of most of these blocks have only a few high tenements, so that the minimum probable density of many is at least 600 to the acre if the present development continues.

3. Room Overcrowding.

There has not been any systematic effort to prevent room overcrowding in the City, but the data as to the extent and seriousness of this evil have been secured from various reliable sources. The Tenement House Commissioner at the request of this Commission prosecuted an investigation in a few crowded blocks and found the following conditions: Parents, children and three to eight adult boarders occupied apartments of two, three or four rooms.

Number of Rooms Having Indicated Number of Occupants. (A Minor Under 12 is Counted as One-Half an Adult.)

Occupants	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	$3\frac{1}{2}$	4	$4\frac{1}{2}$
No. of Rooms.....	..	20	6	58	30	90	15	50	3
Occupants	5	$5\frac{1}{2}$	6	$6\frac{1}{2}$	7	$7\frac{1}{2}$	8	$8\frac{1}{2}$	10
No. of Rooms.....	11	2	9	1	5	..	1	..	2

Extent of Overcrowding in Rooms Occupied. Number of Persons in Each Room Over $1\frac{1}{2}$ Per Room. (A Minor Under 12 is Counted as One-Half an Adult.)

Occupants	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	$3\frac{1}{2}$	4	$4\frac{1}{2}$
No. of Rooms.....	56	28	82	15	51	3	9	3	9
Occupants	5	$5\frac{1}{2}$	6	$6\frac{1}{2}$	7	$7\frac{1}{2}$	8	$8\frac{1}{2}$	10
No. of Rooms.....	1	5	1	2	..

An investigation, made in February, 1910, by various local associations in different sections of the Borough of Manhattan and some of the congested districts of Brooklyn showed, however, that of 91 families reported less than one-half ($\frac{1}{2}$) had two occupants or less per room, while one-fourth ($\frac{1}{4}$) had $2\frac{1}{2}$ occupants per room, one-seventh ($\frac{1}{7}$) had 3, one-ninth ($\frac{1}{9}$) had $3\frac{1}{2}$ and one-eighth 4 occupants to a room, or over. Two cases were discovered of six occupants in a room; one in a basement and one in an attic. One-sixth of the families reported were living in two-room apartments; and one-half in three-room apartments. In each case the number of rooms in the apart-

ment included the kitchen. The families investigated were typical self-supporting families. The Nurses' Settlement on Henry st. reported that 95 per cent. of the families which they knew have three occupants per room or over.

This overcrowding existed notwithstanding the fact that from 5 to 15 per cent. of the apartments available are in most parts of Manhattan constantly vacant.

4. *Intensive Use of Land.*

(A) Proportion of area of blocks covered by buildings in 1908.

In Manhattan over one-fourth of the blocks were covered solidly by buildings or had less than 11 per cent of the area not covered and over half of the blocks had less than 21 per cent. of the area not covered by buildings.

In the built-up sections of Brooklyn nearly one-fifth of the blocks were covered solidly by buildings or had less than 11 per cent. of the site not covered and over one-third of the blocks had less than 21 per cent. of the site not covered, while two-thirds of the blocks had not over one-third of their area devoted to courts and yards.

In the built-up section of the Twenty-third Ward of The Bronx one-fourteenth of the blocks were solidly covered by buildings or had less than 11 per cent. not covered and nearly one-fifth had less than 21 per cent. of the area not covered, while one-half of the blocks had 30 per cent. of the area in courts and yards.

(B) Use of land below Chambers st., New Chambers and James Slip in Manhattan.

About two-thirds of the area below Chambers st. was covered by buildings in 1908. Of this covered area nearly one-third was covered by buildings five stories high, nearly one-tenth by buildings six stories high; nearly one-eleventh by buildings 12 stories high or over.

(C) Cubage or volume of buildings.

Mayor McClellan's first Building Code Revision Commission recommended that no building should exceed a cubage or volume of more than 174 times the area of the lot; that is, should not exceed a volume equivalent to 174 times the area of the lot or a solid building of 14 stories covering the entire lot.

In 1907 there were, however, below Chambers st. eight office buildings having a cubage or volume of over 250 times the area of the lot, and 11 office buildings having a cubage of over 200 times the area of the lot, while one had a cubage of 313 times the area, an access of 139, or more than three-quarters over the cubage recommended.

5. *Height of Tenements.*

There were in 1908, out of a total of 71,922 tenements in Manhattan, 8,761 tenements six stories high or over; in the Twenty-third Ward of The Bronx, out of 12,181 tenements, 1,812 tenements five stories high or over. In the Borough of Brooklyn in the First and to Seventh Wards inclusive, Ninth, Tenth and Twelfth to Seventeenth Wards inclusive, and Twentieth to Twenty-sixth Wards inclusive, comprising most of the built-up section of the Borough, out of 63,649 tenements, 723 or about one-ninetieth were five stories or over. (Many tenements are six stories high in front and a lesser number in the rear, etc., and each number of stories is counted.)

Of the tenements for which plans were filed in 1909 and 1910, in Manhattan, out of a total of 667, only about one-sixth (109) were under six stories high.

In The Bronx, out of a total of 1,855, nearly two-thirds (1,158) were five stories or over.

In Brooklyn, out of a total of 1,563, only about one-thirtieth (54) were five stories or over.

In Queens, out of a total of 443 tenements, only one was over four stories. Of the five tenements in Richmond, two were two stories, two three stories and one over six stories.

Of the total 4,533 tenements for which plans were filed in New York, 134 were over six stories, 613 six stories, 1,137, about one-fourth, five stories, and 2,649, about three-fifths, four stories high or less, more than one-fourth being three stories or less.

6. *Multiple Family Tenements.*

Tenements of this type are for the accommodation of several families, and of these tenements plans were filed in 1909 and 1910 as follows: In Manhattan, of 667 only 272 provided for four families or less per floor. In The Bronx, out of 1,855 only 438, or approximately one-fourth, provided for over four families per floor, while 855 provided for two families or less per floor, approximately one-half of the total number. In Brooklyn, out of 1,563 tenements, 1,345, or approximately four fifths, provided for two families or less per floor, and 321, or one-fifth, for only one family per floor, although there were in Brooklyn 164 tenements which provided for four families per floor or over. Out of 443 tenements in Queens, 422 provided for two families or less per floor, and the largest number of families to the floor was four, in 11 tenements.

In Richmond, two tenements provided for one family to the floor and three for two families.

In New York City as a whole, out of 4,533 tenements, for which plans were filed in 1909 and 1910, 485, or approximately one-tenth, provided for one family per floor, 2,641 provided for two families or less per floor, and approximately one-fifth provided for five families per floor or more.

7. *Heights of Buildings Other Than Tenements in 1907 and 1908.*

In Manhattan, out of 17,357 buildings used for all purposes, except tenements, nearly seven-eighths were six stories high or less, and only one-hundredth were 13 stories high or over. In Brooklyn, out of 10,439 such buildings, only about one-hundredth were over six stories high. In the Twenty-third Ward of The Bronx, out of 2,735 such buildings, only 14 were over six stories high. (As for tenements all elevations were counted.)

8. *Concentration of Land Values.*

In 1910 the assessed land value of ordinary land of Manhattan, that is, exclusive of land of "Real Estate of Corporations" and "Special Franchises," was \$2,905,201,140, nearly 75 per cent. of the entire assessed value of land in Greater New York, viz., \$4,001,129,651, although Manhattan has only 6.7 per cent., or about one-fifteenth of the area of the City. Of the total increase in assessed value of such land of New York from 1909 to 1910, of \$115,402,444, \$75,454,269 was in Manhattan, about two-thirds of the total increase in assessed valuation. In 1908 the assessed value of such land south of Chambers st., New Chambers st. and James Slip in Manhattan, about one-five-hundredth of the area of New York (0.18 per cent.), was \$339,649,810, or 8.83 per cent., nearly one-eleventh of the total assessed value of such land in the entire City. One block in lower Manhattan of only 155 acres represented in 1908 .019 per cent. of the total of such assessed land value of the City, or approximately one-five-hundredth.

9. *Nationalities in Congested Areas and Blocks.*

The data regarding nationalities in congested areas and blocks have been compiled by Dr. Walter Laidlaw, Secretary of the Federation of Churches and Christian Organizations. The data regarding nationality in 1910 are not available, the last being of 1905.

Irish and German, the leading foreign peoples of Manhattan in 1900, have been displaced by Russians and Italians.

All four of these nationalities were in the 100,000 class of 1905, and the Italians were the only group of the four having below 100,000 in the Borough of Manhattan in 1900.

The following is the order of foreign nationalities in Manhattan in 1905: Russian, practically 200,000; Italian, 155,000; Irish, 125,000; German, 115,000; Austrian, 80,000; Hungarian, 35,000; Poles, 25,000; Roumanian, 21,000; Bohemian, 10,000; with 33 other nationalities under 10,000.

The 122 blocks in Manhattan having in 1905 a density of over 750 people per acre have been especially counted: 65.7 per cent of the 312,042 people living in 1905 in blocks of over 750 per acre were foreign-born, and only 34.25 per cent American-born. The foreign-born in Manhattan numbered, in 1905, 890,142, and 205,151 of them, or over 23 per cent., were domiciled in blocks having above 750 people per acre, while less than 9 per cent. of American-born people were living under like conditions.

Of the population in blocks of over 750 density, Russian-born people supplied 30.15 per cent and American only 34.25 per cent, while the Austrians supplied 12.65 per cent., Italians 9.60 per cent., Poles 4.21 per cent., Roumanians 3.24 per cent., and Hungarians 2.78 per cent. South of 14th st., in 1905, there were 155,828 Russian-born people. Of these 93,802, or 62 per cent., were living in blocks having over 750 people per acre.

Of the Poles and Austrians in Manhattan in 1905, there were over 50 per cent living in blocks of over 750 per acre. Between 45 per cent. and 50 per cent. of the Russians in Manhattan blocks, 34 per cent. of the Chinese, over 25 per cent. of the Hungarians, and less than 25 per cent. of the Italians were living in similar blocks.

The foreign-born in Manhattan grew from 789,342 in 1900 to 890,142 in 1905, an increase of 100,800 out of the 262,287 increase of Manhattan in those five years.

The population of Manhattan was 42.7 per cent. foreign-born in 1900, and, despite the surplus of birth-rate over death-rate, was still 42.2 per cent. foreign-born in 1905.

The old Thirty-first Assembly District, running from 110th to 134th sts., and between Park and 8th aves., was 3 per cent. more foreign in 1905 than in 1900.

The Borough of The Bronx had 30.7 per cent. foreign-born in 1900 and 29.5 per cent. in 1905.

The old Thirty-fifth Assembly District had proportionately more foreign-born in 1905 than in 1900, while the foreign-born population of the old Thirty-fourth Assembly District fell off almost 3 per cent.

South of 14th st. on the East Side, the native-born population, from 1900 to 1905, increased only from 223,039 to 231,103, or in all 8,064 persons, less than 4 per cent., while the foreign-born increased 61,517 persons, or very nearly 20 per cent. There were, therefore, many districts where the number of native-born in 1905 was actually less than in 1900.

10. *Land Holdings.*

In 1908: 3,568 acres, approximately one-ninth of the total acreage of The Bronx, was owned by 23 corporations, estates, families and companies. This included one 500-acre tract, two 300-acre tracts, six tracts of from 200 to 250 acres, and 9 from 100 to 200 acres, with a large number of holdings varying from 10 to 100-acre tracts.

In Queens several real estate companies each own from 500 to 1,000 acres of land; two real estate companies own or control approximately one-sixth of the total unimproved land in the Borough of Brooklyn.

In 1907: eight families, estates and corporations owned 5.42 per cent., or over one-twentieth of the total assessed land value in Manhattan, and 1.88 per cent., or nearly one-fiftieth, of the total area of the Borough.

In The Bronx one-fourteenth of the total area was held in lots of over 100 acres, and about one-seventh in lots of 25 to 100 acres.

In Queens one-twenty-fifth of the area was held in lots of over 100 acres, and over one-fifth in lots of 25 to 100 acres.

There were in Greater New York five companies, each of which owned from 400 to about 2,000 acres.

In Richmond 58 individuals, corporations and estates, though chiefly individuals, owned last year, 1910, 5,559 acres out of a total of 26,600 acres, or over one-seventh of the total acreage of the island. There were 37 holdings of from 50 to 100 acres, 17 from 101 to 200 acres, one of 300 acres and one of 1,600 acres. Most of this land was assessed on acreage and some of it as low as \$300 per acre.

11. *Industrial Congestion.*

One of the most marked features of congestion in New York City is the great concentration of factories and workers in factories in lower Manhattan. The largest number of workers reported during the year 1906 in all the factories of the 209,218 acres of Greater New York was 662,749. Of this number 481,856 or over two-thirds were in Manhattan on less than one-fifteenth of the area of the City, while 321,468, practically one-half, were located below 14th st., and 20th on the West Side in Manhattan on 2,717 acres, or virtually one-seventieth of the area of the City. In the old Sixth Assembly District, bounded by Broadway, 4th st., 3d ave., St. Marks pl., 2d ave., E. 2d st., 1st ave., E. Houston, Stanton, Chrystie, Division sts., Bowery and Canal st., and comprising only 186 acres, there were 56,598 workers in factories, or approximately one-eleventh of all the workers of the City, on one-eleven-hundred-and-twenty-fourth of all the City's area.

The number of factories in New York City in 1906 was 25,892; of these 20,193 (77.94 per cent), or nearly four-fifths, were located in Manhattan and The Bronx, with very few in The Bronx. Of the increase of 3,060 new factories in Greater New York from 1906 to 1907, 2,438 were located in Manhattan and The Bronx, the vast majority of these in Manhattan, representing in the two Boroughs 78.16 per cent of the total increase in factories, again approximately four-fifths. During this period there was an increase of only 473 factories in Brooklyn, 106 in Queens and 43 in Richmond.

A study of the number of persons for whom accommodations were provided in factories built during the year 1902 to 1907 inclusive show that provisions were made, allowing 28 square feet to each occupant, for 137,034 in Manhattan, of whom 31,789 were located about 42d st., while 72,805 were located in the district between 8th st., St. Marks pl., Greenwich ave. and Christopher st. and 42d st. On the same basis, from 1903 to 1907 inclusive, accommodations were provided in factories constructed for 197,238 persons in Brooklyn, but provisions for only one-third of them were made in the central wards, the 10th, 12th, 22d and 26th. Factories in the main are not overcrowded in Brooklyn as in Manhattan. Brooklyn, with nearly one-fourth of the City's area, had only about half the number of workers below 14th st. in Manhattan.

12. *Office Concentration.*

There were in office buildings below Chambers st., New Chambers st. and James Slip in 1908, allowing 110 square feet to each occupant, accommodations for nearly 130,000 people.

In office buildings constructed in 1908 there were provided accommodations below Cortlandt st. and in Maiden Lane for 15,575 persons, allowing 110 square feet to each

occupant. Two large buildings, however, each provide accommodations for from 8,000 to 10,000 people.

13. *School Conditions in New York City.*

(a) There were in public elementary schools on October 31, 1910, in Manhattan, 425 classes having register of 56 pupils and over, and three having a register of from 88 to 101. In The Bronx there were 165 classes with a register of over 56 and one class having between 88 and 101. In Brooklyn there were 453 classes having a register of over 56 pupils, while Queens had 29 such classes, and Richmond three. In the Boroughs outside of Manhattan, however, these large classes have a larger proportion of the total number of pupils than in Manhattan.

(b) *Height of School Buildings.*

In Manhattan 82 school buildings are five stories, and two six stories in height; in The Bronx there are one five-story buildings and one five-story basement; in Brooklyn, two five-story and one five-story and basement, while in Brooklyn there were 44 four-story and basement school buildings.

(c) *Schools Having Specified Average Attendance December, 1910.*

Borough.	Under 1,500.	1,500 to 2,000.	2,000 to 2,500.	2,500 to 3,000.	Over 3,000.	Total Schools.
Manhattan	87	42	23	12	..	166
The Bronx	21	4	5	6	1	40
Brooklyn	113	24	20	1	1	159
Queens	73	73
Richmond	34	34
Total	328	73	48	19	4	472

(d) *Part Time and Average Attendance.*

Borough.	Part Time.	Average Attendance. Dec., 1910.	Percentage of Attendance on Part Time.
Manhattan	9,717	247,509	3.9%
The Bronx	14,475	61,068	23.7%
Brooklyn	28,826	207,922	13.8%
Queens	4,686	39,977	11.7%
Richmond	165	11,022	1.4%
	57,809	567,498	10.0%

It will be noted that Richmond, with less than 2 per cent. of the total average attendance in public elementary schools, had only 1.4 per cent. of pupils on part time. Manhattan, however, had only about one-third as large a proportion of pupils on part time as Queens, and only about one-sixth as large a proportion on part time as Brooklyn.

The City has paid for school sites in congested sections of Manhattan as high as \$20 per square foot, while the average price paid per square foot for school sites in Brooklyn and The Bronx for the last few years has been approximately \$1.50 per square foot and in Queens less than 75 cents per square foot.

14. *Assessed Land Values of Congested Blocks.*

It is often claimed that for a good standard of housing for unskilled wage earners the maximum value of land should not exceed 50 cents per square foot.

In 1908 the assessed land value per square foot of the congested blocks of lower Manhattan ranged from \$2.74 to \$16, and in most of these blocks exceeded \$10 per square foot.

The land value maps prepared by the Department of Taxes and Assessments show that in 1910, exclusive of corner lots, or those influenced by corner values, including the maximum value on any side of the block, values were as follows:

Of 2,372 blocks in Manhattan only 99 had lots with value of \$1 per square foot or less, and only 169 had lots with a value of \$3.50 per square foot or less, while 798 blocks had lots with a value of \$9.50 per square foot, and from that valuation up to the high Wall st. values.

Of 2,162 blocks in The Bronx, 579, or nearly two-sevenths, had lots assessed for fifty cents per square foot or less, while 1,901, or about seven-eighths, were assessed for \$2 per square foot or less.

Of the 7,327 blocks in Brooklyn, only 218, about one-thirty-fifth, were assessed for over \$3.50 per square foot, while only about one-fifteenth were assessed for over \$2 per square foot, and 4,476, nearly two-thirds, were \$1 per square foot, or less.

Of the 849 blocks in the First Ward of Queens (Long Island City), 712, or nearly seven-eighths, had a value of \$1 per square foot or less, and only 35 of over \$2 per square foot, while the highest square foot values were only \$5 and \$6.70 on Jackson ave. In most of the rest of the Borough assessed land values were under 50 cents per square foot.

In Richmond relatively little land is assessed for over 25 cents per square foot, and much of it is acreage.

15. *Park Area in Congested Districts.*

In 1910 Manhattan had a total park acreage of 1,444.2849 acres, with 1,614 population to each acre of park; The Bronx had 4,135.574 acres of park, with 104 population to each acre of park; Brooklyn, 978.385 acres, with 1,674 population to the acre; Queens, 602.23 acreage of parks, with 386 to the acre; and Richmond, 62.53 park acreage, with 1,374 population to the acre. Mr. Howard Bradstreet, Superintendent of Recreation of Manhattan and Richmond, has prepared tables in which he shows the actual deficit of park area for different Assembly Districts in 1908, since which time there has been practically no addition to the park acreage of the City, while the population has increased several hundred thousand. Mr. Bradstreet takes an acre of park as a normal provision for 250 people, and on this basis there was in 1908 in the First Assembly District, bounded roughly by the Hudson River, Canal and Broome sts. and Broadway, a shortage of park acreage of 7,382 acres; in the Fourth Assembly District, bounded roughly by Catherine, Division and Jackson sts. and the East River, and with a total area of 166 acres, a shortage of park area amounting to 361.622 acres; that is, the population is so dense that it is impossible to provide even approximately an adequate park area. Similar conditions exist in several other sections of the City. The City has paid as high as at the rate of \$5,000,000 for an open spot in lower Manhattan, but can secure parks in other Boroughs for from \$5,000 to \$10,000 an acre.

II. EFFECTS OF CONGESTION AND ROOM OVERCROWDING.

The effects of congestion may be treated under three heads:

1. Physical effects.
2. Moral effects.
3. Economic effects.

(1) *Physical Effects.*

The crude death rate of New York City is not, notwithstanding the conditions of congestion to which attention has been directed, a high one. In 1909 it was sixteen ten-hundredths (15.10) per thousand; Vienna, sixteen and eight-tenths (16.8); Paris, seventeen and four-tenths (17.4); Chicago, fourteen and one-tenth (14.1); Philadelphia, fifteen and eight-tenths (15.8); and Boston, seventeen and seven-tenths (17.7) per thousand. Dr. W. H. Guilfooy, Register of the Bureau of Records of the Department of Health, to whom the Commission is indebted for the statistics which have just been given, remarks:

"The Committee on Congestion should not fall into the error that the crude death rate of a city is an accurate measure of that city's salubrity as compared with that of other cities whose crude death rate may be lower. The death rate of a town, city or country is dependent upon a considerable number of factors, and the most important of these are the sex and age groupings or distribution of population. A city with a very high birth rate like New York City will have a considerable number of children living in it under the age of five years, at which age the death rate is very high. Consequently, this will increase the mortality considerably above other cities in which the birth rate is apparently low. We find, as a matter of fact, that the birth rate in all of the large cities of the world, with the probable exception of New York, has been decreasing within the past ten years, and that this decrease in the birth rate has gone hand in hand with the decrease in the crude death rate due to the comparatively small number of children under the age of five years, at which age the mortality is excessive. When this department receives the figures showing the sex and age groupings in The City of New York, as enumerated in the Federal Census of this year, it will be in a position to make accurate comparisons between the death rate of New York City and that of some of the other cities of the world. Until this is done we maintain that New York City is equal to, if not superior to, any large city in the world from the point of view of healthfulness."

While, therefore, such conditions of congestion as exist in this City have not had any alarming results upon the health of the population, it is still true that those conditions have unquestionably had a bad effect upon the public health.

Dr. W. H. Parks stated at a hearing of the subcommittee on Health of the Commission, "that the more overcrowding you have the more sickness and death there will be. As to the actual amount of such increase, I have no statistics, and so cannot state definitely. It is the opinion of all those that have studied congestion, that we have increased sickness in overcrowded rooms and increased mortality among those sick; that is, not only more sick, but of those that are sick, more deaths. This is especially true of communicable diseases. Overcrowded rooms mean less fresh air, and, therefore, as we now know, less chance for recovery."

He stated with regard to consumption: "The best of my knowledge and belief is that three-fourths of those now known to have consumption will die without regard to what can be done for them, and it is only in the early stages that recovery is possible for a large percentage." And further: "The most important thing is to supply a place where good air and good light can be got, away from the City; and next to that give them rooms with good air and light in the City, and sufficient and suitable food, if they cannot afford it themselves. Every case removed from the City and made comfortable itself will remove one centre of infection. At present, the number of tuberculosis cases in the City remains the same. That is, we have as many cases each year as the year before." And he anticipated the same number of deaths annually, i. e., approximately 10,000 under our present conditions.

It is unquestionably the case that congestion of population through its effect upon the health of the people of the City is contributing largely to the \$10,000,000 a year which New York spends on her departments for the prevention and the cure of disease.

While the death rate of New York City is not extremely high compared with the death rates of some cities, the true physical results of congestion and room overcrowding can be ascertained only when corrections are made for specific diseases and for age and in congested blocks and in overcrowded rooms.

Dr. Antonio Stella has analyzed the records of the City Department of Health in 1905 and 1906 for six congested blocks in which Italians predominated.

While the general death rate for The City of New York in 1905 and 1906 was 18.35 per cent. per 1,000, and under five years 51.5 per 1,000, it varies in these blocks from 22.3 to 24.9 per 1,000 for all ages and from 59.5 to 92.2 per 1,000 for children under five years of age.

In an exhaustive examination made recently of 72,857 school children in Glasgow, whose families were living in one, two, three and four rooms respectively, it was found that invariably boys and girls of a given age, whose families were living in one room, were both of lighter weight and shorter in stature than those whose families were living in two room apartments, those in two rooms than those in three, and those in three than those in four.

Investigations at Edinburgh showed similar results, with the addition that it was found there was an equivalent difference in mental power.

An investigation made in Leipsig showed a death rate in rooms with three or four occupants, for adults three times and for children under one year four times greater than in rooms with one occupant.

In a recent year the county of Durham, England, in which there was 28.4 per cent. of overcrowding, had a death rate of 18.64 per 1,000, while the county of Essex, with only 2.7 per cent. of overcrowding, had a death rate of 14.03 per 1,000.

Sir Shirley Murphy, Medical Officer of Health of London, in a report of the Committee on Physical Deterioration, furnished the following information regarding the results in London in 1901:

Proportion of Total Population Living in Tenements of One or Two Rooms.

	Death Rate per 1,000 Living.	
	From All Causes.	From Phthisis.
Districts with 0-12 per cent. overcrowding.....	13.4	1.1
Districts with 12-15 per cent. overcrowding.....	16.1	1.4
Districts with 15-20 per cent. overcrowding.....	17.7	1.5
Districts with 20-25 per cent. overcrowding.....	15.3	1.5
Districts with 25-32 per cent. overcrowding.....	18.9	1.9
Districts with 32 per cent. and upwards overcrowding.....	19.7	2.0

Sir Shirley Murphy has shown that 1891-1900, the infant mortality in districts of London with under 10 per cent. of overcrowding (more than two in a room) is 142 per 1,000 births, whereas, in districts with a percentage of overcrowding of over 35, it is 223 per 1,000 births.

2. *Moral Effects of Congestion and Room Overcrowding.*

While it is a fact that most of those persons who are convicted of crime come from the congested districts, it is of course, not possible to regard congestion of population as a sole or even the main cause of crime. At the same time there seems to be very little doubt among those who have worked in the congested districts that a very large part of the juvenile delinquencies, which are becoming so serious, are directly traceable to the congested conditions of population among a large portion of the families from which the juvenile delinquents come. Mr. Ernest K. Coulter, Clerk of the Children's Court of New York County, stated: "Congestion is responsible for a vast number of the cases that come into the Children's Courts of New York City, environment counts nine-tenths in the whole proposition of juvenile delinquency." Mr. Coulter gave many instances of the results of room overcrowding, for he claimed: "The children often come to feel that they are not wanted in their so-called homes and they are really forced to the streets. The most skillful pickpockets in New York City are children. The ranks of these young thieves are constantly being recruited from the districts where there is the greatest congestion. The reason is that the homes of these children are so crowded and wretched that there is little attractive for them there, and these little unfortunates when given the first taste of easy money, have little desire to live in the old way."

Hon. Wm. McAdoo, Chief City Magistrate, stated in a communication to the Commission:

"I think there can be no question but what the connection between congestion of population, especially in that form which it takes in the tenement houses, particularly the old style tenements, crime and delinquency is very marked. The crowded living conditions in these small rooms, lack of personal privacy and separation of the sexes, must, in the very nature of things beget conditions which conduce to immorality and the lack of self respect.

"I certainly think that the poor family in the country, however impoverished, has a much better chance of bringing up the children to lead clean, moral lives, and be less sophisticated as to vice than children brought up in the congested quarters in the city. For instance, I recently visited what are called the 'agricultural slums' in the congested districts in Ireland, in a mountainous and very healthy country, where the indoor life is cramped and the poverty obvious, but where the outdoor life is very healthful, the climate moderate and even, and the moral and religious atmosphere excellent; and I should hesitate, if it had been left to me, to transplant these people to the crowded tenements of the East Side, even if they got more food and better clothing than they did in the old country. The percentage of crime amongst these people in the old land is so low as scarcely to be perceptible, and they lead clean, moral lives, stimulated under adverse conditions by high spiritual exaltation and deep reverence."

3. *Economic Effects of Congestion and Room Overcrowding.*

The most marked effects of congestion of population are upon rent and wages. The mere presence of a large population in certain sections, on account of the increased demand for housing accommodations, has the natural result of increasing the rent which is demanded; and of diminishing the wages in so far as the amount of work for which wages are paid does not increase. The high rents and the low wage have the effect of forcing the population to live in more and more congested conditions. Rents are so high and wages are so low in the congested districts of the City that it is everywhere reported to the Commission that families in these districts are quite commonly taking in lodgers or boarders in order to enable them to pay the rents which are demanded.

Rents in the congested districts are furthermore apparently increasing. This increase in rents naturally increases the land values. The cost of materials used in the construction of buildings and the cost of labor employed for that purpose have also increased. The result has been, so long as there is a demand for housing accommodations, to increase the rent. In fact, low wages, high rents, increase of land values and the cost of construction and labor, all seem to work in a vicious circle, the effect of which is indirectly, at any rate, to increase congestion and to lower the standards of life of a large part of the population which is living in the congested districts.

This lowering of the economic standards of a large part of the population living in the congested districts, has had the effect also of making greater and greater

demands upon public and private charitable aid within the city. The most noticeable effects are to be seen in the case of private charitable aid. The city, as is well known, does not at present distribute any outdoor relief of any amount. Such outdoor relief as is distributed, is distributed by the private charitable associations of the city with the exception of stipends to the blind. This outdoor relief is naturally distributed by those associations among the population where the need of it is most noticeable; and that population is the population of the congested districts. No attempt apparently is made by associations distributing outdoor relief so to distribute their relief as to diminish congestion; in fact, as far as the Commission have been able to determine the effect of the distribution of outdoor relief under the present conditions is to increase rather than diminish congestion.

The Sub-committee on Charities, of this Commission, has found:

(1) That over 150,000 persons are receiving annually outdoor relief, and that about 500,000 people are receiving annually relief from public and private charity of all kinds.

(2) That most of the relief is given to people who live in congested districts where rents are very high.

(3) That relief is being given by private charities in the city to people living in such unhealthy conditions that the Department of Health has refused to grant licenses for home manufacture to the people occupying such quarters.

(4) That relief is given by private societies to families where tenement manufacture is constantly going on in defiance of the law.

The effect of such methods in distributing outdoor relief is therefore extremely bad. Its effect also is important since it is established, that about \$20,000,000 are distributed annually.

CAUSES OF CONGESTION.

1. *Poverty.*

Poverty may be defined as inability to maintain a reasonable standard of living. With limitations, poverty must be recognized as an indirect cause of congestion of population. With the enormous land values in Manhattan, the very wealthy who can afford ample space are not in any sense of the term congested. On the other hand the inability of unskilled wage earners to pay the rent demanded for a sufficient area for their homes and enough rooms causes congestion and room overcrowding. With a proper distribution of population, however, and with reasonably cheap land, there should not be any such direct connection between the present incomes and the congestion of population.

2. *Concentration of Factories and Offices.*

The Island of Manhattan is the site of the greatest concentration of factories and offices in the world. Many buildings occupied almost entirely by factories are from 12 to 18 stories in height, and the mere fact, that nearly half of the total number of workers in factories of this city are occupied in factories located in the 2,717 acres below 14th street and up to 20th street on the west side in Manhattan, would necessarily, with the present long hours of work, even with better wages than those now paid, produce congestion of population, or the massing of many people upon very limited areas. For, with the present hours of labor, the factory workers must live near their work.

3. *The Recent Consolidation of the Five Boroughs.*

Until The Bronx was incorporated with Manhattan, the limited area of Manhattan, the rivers on both sides were some excuse for the massing of population, which has been a special feature of Manhattan's development. Ever since the consolidation of these two boroughs, as now constituted, little effort has however been made to distribute population into The Bronx, for Manhattan has been desirous of utilizing its land most intensively through the massing of population in tenements, factories and offices. Until the information of Greater New York in 1897, moreover, there was further the same competition between Manhattan and Brooklyn, which now exists between The City of New York and the State of New Jersey, especially the cities in the western part of that State.

It has been extremely difficult to overcome the striving of each community to get the population. Had New York City comprised 25 years ago its present area, the probabilities are that there would have been a little less congestion in the Borough of Manhattan to-day.

4. *The Intensive Use of the Land.*

The present Tenement House Law marks indeed an advance upon the Tenement House Law which had been enacted previously. This law permits a net density per acre exclusive of streets surrounding the block of 3,860 in large fireproof tenements, while in the ordinary six-story tenement a density of 1,300 per net acre is permissible.

There is, however, no limit upon the height of tenements other than that they shall not exceed by more than one-half the width of the widest street upon which they stand. There is also no limit placed upon the volume or cubage or heights of buildings used for office or factory purposes. While the report of this Commission was being prepared, a building of 55 stories in height has been planned for lower Manhattan.

The most startling fact, however, is that these conditions and the intensive use of land are permissible not only in Manhattan, but as well in every part of each of the five constituent boroughs of New York City. Ninety per cent. of corner lots, and 70 per cent. of interior lots may be covered by tenements, while a hotel, when located on any other than a corner lot, may cover 90 per cent. of the area of such lot or plot at an above the second-story level if not more than five stories in height, and 2½ per cent. less for every additional story in height. On a corner lot a hotel may occupy 95 per cent. of such lot at and above the second-story level, and in both cases may cover the entire area of the first floor. Office buildings may cover the entire area of a corner lot, and 90 per cent. of lot area at and above the second story, when not located on a corner.

5. *The High Price of Land Due to the Intensive Use of Land.*

It is true that the first story of low buildings situated on a thoroughfare with thousands of people passing it daily, would pay a fair return upon a very high land value, but it is equally true that the present permissible intensive use of land makes land valuable, and that land values tend to reach the maximum capitalized rental value of the most intensive use of land permitted under the law. In other words, land values in New York City, especially in Manhattan and sections of The Bronx and Brooklyn, readily accessible by transit have capitalized congestion values, and these values are the basis of the city's entire financial and fiscal policies.

6. *Lack of Control Over Aliens and Citizens.*

The personal element as a factor in producing congestion must be recognized. A great many people who are perfectly able to afford sanitary conditions of living an adequate number of rooms and good housing, nevertheless crowd into unsanitary dwellings and rooms in congested districts through too keen a sense of thrift and the desire to reduce their expenditures so that they may save money to send home or for other purposes. This applies not only to aliens but to workers who come to the City from other parts of the State or of this country. The Tenement House Law requires as has been noted that no room shall be so overcrowded that there shall be less than 400 cubic feet of air space for every adult and 200 for every child under 12 years of age, but there is no means of enforcing this law, and there has been no systematic effort to make this requirement of the law known to the tenement dwellers. There is absolutely no control at present and there has never been any such control over the location of immigrants and poorer classes of citizens who tend to flock to the already over-populated sections of the City contiguous to opportunities for securing employment.

7. *Long Hours of Work.*

Three factors are very important in the determining of the residence of the workers in factories and to a lesser extent in offices.

- (a) Hours of work.
- (b) Carfare.
- (c) Social considerations, clannishness or gregariousness.

Long hours of work, however, are one of the most important, since even if the laborer has a large income so that the carfare is not a determining factor, nevertheless the necessity of riding even half an hour to and from work in addition to 10 hours of work, tends to keep him near his work, even if he is required to live in congested sections of the City and in surroundings unfavorable for his family. It should be noted, too, that the member of the family who has the longest hours of labor generally determines the location of the family, thus, although several members of the family may be working only seven or eight hours, if the father, an unskilled laborer, works 10 hours and must be at his work at 7 o'clock in the morning, this will tend to keep the entire family near the father's place of work.

8. *Cost of Transit and the Transit Policy of the City.*

The Bulletin of the Federal Census published recently shows that in 1905, the average wages of workers in factories in the different Boroughs were as follows:

Of 339,221 Wage Earners in Factories in Manhattan and The Bronx.....	\$536 76
Of 104,995 Wage Earners in Factories in Brooklyn.....	519 42
Of 14,905 Wage Earners in Factories in Queens.....	566 28
Of 5,595 Wage Earners in Factories in Richmond.....	549 21

There are relatively few heads of families in New York City, even skilled mechanics, who are earning the minimum of \$800 a year, which a Committee of the State Conference on Charities and Corrections have reported to be essential to maintain a family on a reasonable basis without permitting of any saving whatsoever, and promising the utmost care and thrift on the part of the family. It is true, of course, that many families of the City have more than one worker, so that the total income of the family is greater than the figures given above, but the minimum of \$800 provides only for the support for three children under 14 years of age and for the parents, while the expenses of a child over 14 years of age working are naturally greater than those of children under this age. There are roughly speaking no areas at present accessible to Manhattan where a laborer's family can live with an expenditure of less than 20 cents a day for the wage earner's carfare, or without the necessity of nearly one hour's travel and secure the housing conditions which are regarded as proper in almost every other American city. The man, therefore, who is employed in lower Manhattan, and who has an income of less than even \$900, is practically obliged with a ten-hour day to reside within these congested districts if he has a family of three children and a wife to support. The transit policy of New York City is in partial measure responsible for this condition.

The City in the past has regarded transit as a matter to be governed by commercial and not by social considerations, and although it must be admitted that the transportation of large numbers of persons to and from work involves an economic waste which might largely be avoided, lack of adequate transit facilities coupled with a complete failure to regulate the development of the City has tended to produce congestion of population in Manhattan and to permit of the gradual duplication of similar congestion, although not as intense as yet in the other Boroughs of the City.

9. *Lack of a Definite City Plan.*

The failure to provide for the development of the City for a number of years in advance and to make provision for the gradual adaptation of streets to the needs of subsequent generations at a reasonable cost has in large measure caused the present congestion of traffic in the downtown sections.

The cost of widening streets in these sections is well nigh prohibitive after land has reached a high value and the streets are improved by buildings of great volume and costly construction, whose alteration or demolition would put a very heavy cost upon the City. The failure to provide a City plan determining the way in which the various sections of the City are to be developed is also largely responsible for the congestion through intensive use of land. It is true that on lower Manhattan the factories are chiefly located in the centre of the Island and at nearly an equal distance from both rivers, and there is a large tenement district on both sides of this factory district. On the other hand the land values are so great here now that this proximity of factory and dwelling which was formerly advantageous now constitutes one of the most serious problems of congestion. To a very limited extent also factories have been placed along the water fronts and the rivers, creeks and canals in the Borough of The Bronx, Brooklyn and Queens, but the City has not had any logical plan made for such distribution. Centralization has been the principle of New York's development. Considerable attention has been paid ever since consolidation to the development of Manhattan, even yet not only the financial centre of the City, but as well the business, barter, artistic, recreation and hotel centre of the Greater New York. The result, viz.: Intense congestion has been perfectly natural, private interest has been permitted to control the development not only of Manhattan but of the other Boroughs rather than the public welfare.

10. *Present System of Taxation.*

In New York City until very recently the owner of land improved with buildings has been penalized, while the man who holds the land out of use so that he may secure the speculative increase of land values has been helped by the taxation policy of the City, since unimproved land has been assessed at a relatively low value, while the rate on land and buildings has been the same. The system of taxation has discouraged the construction of tenements, of factories and all other buildings until the growth of the City's projected improvement has given to land the capitalized congestion value, to which reference has been made and has enabled the owners of land to reap fortunes from values created largely by the increases of population. This policy is putting a premium upon congestion and is in appreciable measure responsible for the holding of land out of use for a much longer period than it would be so withheld if a large share of the increase of land values created by the community were recovered by them for community needs.

11. *Failure to Prepare Land for Housing Purposes.*

An inquiry addressed by the Commission to the Presidents of the various Bor-

oughs had elicited from some of them the opinion that the inadequacy of the sewer system in certain districts in The Bronx and Queens has prevented the construction in such districts of dwellings. This inadequacy is due not so much to any neglect on the part of the City officers as to the fact that the undertaking of such improvements is dependent upon the action of the owners of property in those districts.

The President of the Borough of Manhattan suggested that the "President of the Borough might be clothed with the same authority that the Commissioner of Public Works had under the old regime, that is, prior to consolidation, who was allowed to complete the sewer system throughout the City and to lay or improve the sewers as necessity required. No petition was necessary and the only requirement was that maps showing the proposed works should be filed before allowing the contracts for the same."

The President of the Borough of Queens is of the belief "that the construction of sewers could be expedited if the Board of Estimate and Apportionment would recommend the approval of sewerage systems in isolated sections, these systems to be finally incorporated perhaps with some modifications with the scheme for the whole Borough, or by having them approve a system first showing the location, size and grade of the outlet sewer, the sewers for the separate locations to be designed as the need develops."

12. *Methods of Administering Public and Private Charity.*

The effect of charity has doubtless been overestimated by many people as a cause of congestion of population. The City however expends annually approximately \$35,000,000 on charity, either public or private, including the cost of maintaining public and private institutions. This means roughly about \$9 for every family in the City. The expenditure of so large an amount must have some effect upon the welfare of the community. Much evidence has been presented before the Commission which shows that the present methods of charitable societies of the City and even of the Department of Public Charities, tend to anchor people in the congested districts. Thus in the year 1910 out of approximately \$3,170,000 expended by seven of the largest charities of the City and 44 hospitals connected with the Saturday and Sunday Hospital Association of New York City only about \$182,000 was expended outside of Manhattan and The Bronx, excluding the expenditures for a few hospitals connected with the Saturday and Sunday Hospital Association of New York City. The United Hebrew Charities and constituent societies, expended during this year for relief in Manhattan and The Bronx \$358,575, the Charity Organization Society, \$79,222, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, \$90,512, the St. Vincent de Paul Society, \$120,323.

A former financial agent of one of these societies stated before the Commission that a large proportion of the relief paid by the charitable associations of the City was made necessary by the conditions of living in the City, and in this sense it might be regarded as unnecessary and wasted. A large proportion moreover of the public and private charitable institutions of the City are located in the congested sections of Manhattan and The Bronx, and in the rapidly congesting sections of Brooklyn. The inmates of these institutions are taught chiefly the occupations which will fit them for city life and not the occupations for rural or small town life. Thus the effect of the work of the public and private charitable institutions of the City has been by alleviating the conditions of congestion and preventing suffering to tend to anchor people in these sections, where healthy housing conditions are too costly for the unskilled or even semi-skilled wage earners of the City.

13. *Failure of the City to Adopt a Policy to Attract People to Outlying Boroughs.*

The policy of the City in the past has been to provide relatively adequate educational and recreational opportunities for people living in the congested districts of the City. The City has however been behind in furnishing similar opportunities in the outlying sections: Thus in 1910, there was an acre of park for every 1,614 of the population in Manhattan, for every 1,674 of the population in Brooklyn, and for every 1,374 in Richmond. In The Bronx the population was 104 per acre of park, but in the built-up sections of The Bronx there are relatively few parks and playgrounds, and the total acreage is largely composed of a few large parks, such as Pelham Bay, Crotona and Van Cortlandt parks. There were in the same year, 1910, 47 evening schools in Manhattan, only 5 in The Bronx, and 33 in Brooklyn. In Manhattan, in 1910, only 3.9 per cent. of the attendants at public school were on part time, in The Bronx 23.7 per cent, in Brooklyn 13.7 per cent., Queens 11.4 per cent., in Richmond 1.4 per cent. The average of the entire City was 10.1 per cent. A very large proportion of overcrowding of school rooms, moreover, was found in the outlying boroughs of the City. Such conditions have much to do with congestion of population in that they discourage its distribution to the less congested districts. It appears to

the Commission that very little effort has been made by the City to provide these districts with those conveniences which add so much to the pleasures of city life and for whose existence the inhabitants are dependent upon municipal action. The outlying sections do not seem to us to have received as generous treatment as they should have at the hands of the City, so far as concerns an ample supply of water and artificial light, police and fire protection and school provision, library and facilities for culture.

It should be noted too that comparatively little effort has been made by the City to train citizens or even school children for life outside of the congested centres. Thus, there were only 31 school gardens in Manhattan in 1909, and 12 so-called school gardens in The Bronx. Out of the 29 vacation schools conducted also in 1910, 14 were in Manhattan, only 1 in Queens, none in Richmond, with 13 in Brooklyn, mostly in the built-up section of the City, however.

The City has conducted a farm garden in the upper west side of Manhattan. Very little, however, has been done to train children through the public schools for anything except congested city life or to instill into them a desire for homes with gardens outside of the congested sections of the City.

14. *Immigration.*

It is not primarily the extent of immigration which is responsible for the congestion of population, as has been intimated earlier in the report, but the lack of control over the location of immigrants and supervision over them. The increase in population in this City has been very large. This is not, however, primarily due, and we must again emphasize it, to the fact that we have had immigration. The increase in population, it is believed, is due in large measure to the fact that New York is the most important port of entry for the immigrants who come to this country. These immigrants apparently have a much greater influence upon the congestion of the congested districts than their mere numbers would indicate. For the tendency of the immigrant is to take up his abode in the districts which are the most congested, and this tendency seems to be accelerated by the work of the various philanthropic and benevolent associations which attempt to ameliorate the lot of the immigrant. For example: the North American Civic League have arrangements by which they transfer immigrants from Ellis Island to their destination in the City. They report that during the period from October 5 to November 30, 1910, they transported 4,399 immigrants, exclusive of Hebrews. Of this number 384 were placed below Chambers street in Manhattan; 1,400 between Chambers street and 42d street; while 491 went to Brooklyn.

The Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society reported that for the month of November, 1910, 782 immigrants immediately upon arrival were taken to their destination; 424 of these were located below 14th street in Manhattan, 114 in Manhattan north of 14th street. In other wards, nearly three-fourths were located in Manhattan; while only one hundred and thirty-five or roughly, one-fifth, were destined for Brooklyn and the suburbs, and only forty-nine for points outside of New York City.

The same number of immigrants might have reached the United States and been deflected directly throughout the country to sections where they are needed, but immigration without direction under the present laws has been a potent cause of congestion in New York City.

The overcrowding of rooms, to which attention has been called, is in large measure due to immigrants who come in such large numbers to this country. The Federal Immigration Commission reports that in 2,667 households of which they made investigation in New York City, 23.2 per cent. of the households had two or more occupants per room, while 10.2 per cent. had only two rooms per household. They also report that of the 2,648 families investigated, of whom they have complete data, 1,944, or nearly three-fourths, had two persons or more per sleeping room; that 24.6 per cent. of the families took lodgers or boarders, and in these families the average number of lodgers or boarders was 1.87 per room.

This overcrowding is particularly noticeable in the case of Italians. In February and March, 1908, an investigation made of 174 scattered Italian families in lower Manhattan showed that out of 255 rooms occupied, 191 had three occupants or over per room.

The immigrant is responsible in some measure at any rate for congestion in another way. His coming here not only increases the number of persons to be accommodated but also has the effect of lowering wages for those who are here, with the result that overcrowding becomes necessary in order to pay the rent which is demanded in the congested districts.

Information was obtained by the sub-committee on Labor and Wages to the effect that on the Catskill Aqueduct Construction Works there were two rates of wages paid, viz.: Those to the immigrants and those to the Americans, and that the

tendency of contractors was always to secure immigrants from New York City on account of the comparatively low wages which could be paid them.

IV. METHODS OF RELIEVING AND PREVENTING CONGESTION OF POPULATION AND ROOM OVERCROWDING IN AMERICA AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

(a) General Restrictions on Height or Volume of Buildings, Including the Area of Lot That May be Occupied by Buildings.

The most striking fact with reference to the restriction on the height or volume of buildings is that in most foreign countries there are different regulations for different sections of the same city, whereas in American cities, with a few conspicuous exceptions, the regulations applying to the centre of the city apply through the entire area of the city. The restrictions upon the heights of buildings in several American cities and states were as follows in 1908:

New Jersey, Chicago, Baltimore and Cleveland limit the height of tenements to one and one-half times the width of the widest street on which the building stands. San Francisco places no limit on fireproof structures, but limits all others to one and one-half times the width of the street. Boston places the limit at two and one-half times the width of the street, but permits no building to exceed one hundred and fifty feet and limits those on streets sixty feet wide or less to two and one-half times the width of the street.

Washington limits all tenements to the width of the street between building lines, but never to exceed ninety feet. Providence limits all to ninety feet unless fireproof. Rochester permits no tenement to exceed in height four times its horizontal dimension.

(b) Percentage of Lot Area That May be Occupied in American Cities and Foreign Cities.

In New Jersey no tenement house can occupy more than 90 per cent. of a corner lot, or more than 70 per cent. of an interior lot. Connecticut, Cleveland, Baltimore and Washington all limit the occupancy of corner lots to 90 per cent. Chicago permits lots bounded by streets on 3 sides to occupy 90 per cent., but limits all other corner lots to 50 feet or less in width, but only 75 per cent. of the excess over 50 feet of corner lots. Connecticut, Chicago, San Francisco and Washington limit the occupancy of interior lots to 75 per cent., Baltimore to 70 per cent. and Cleveland to 65 per cent.

(c) Zone System in Boston and Baltimore.

By an Act of 1904, relative to the height of buildings in the City of Boston, the city is divided into two classes of two districts, designated districts A and B. The boundaries of these districts continue for a period of 15 years, and by the terms of the Act are determined in such manner that those parts of the city in which all or the greater part of the buildings situated therein were at the time of such determination used for business or commercial purposes, shall be included in the district designated A, and those parts of the city in which all or the greater part of the building situated therein were at the time used for residential purposes or for other purposes not business or commercial shall be in the district designated B. In the first district, A, no building may be erected to a height of more than 125 feet above the grade of the street, and in the second district, B, no building may be erected to a height of more than 80 feet above the grade of the street. This restriction, however, does not apply to grain or coal elevators, sugar refineries in any district designated A, nor to steeples, domes, towers or cupolas erected strictly for ornamental purposes, fire-proof material on buildings of the above height or less in any district. By an Act of 1905, relative to the height of buildings in the City of Boston, a commission of three members was appointed by the Mayor to determine the height of buildings within the district designated B, (since in each part of the district designated B buildings may be erected exceeding 80 feet, but not exceeding 100 feet in height) and the height between 80 feet and 100 feet to which buildings may be erected, and the conditions under which buildings could be so erected. Authority was given to this Commission to provide for the erection of buildings to a height not exceeding 125 feet in that portion of district B which lies within 50 feet of the boundary line, separating said district B from the district designated as District A. It has also provided "No limitations of the height of buildings in the City (of Boston) shall apply to churches, steeples, towers, domes, cupolas or statuary not used for purposes of habitation nor to chimneys, gas holders, coal or grain elevators, open balustrades, skylights, ventilators, flagstaves, railings, weather vanes, soil pipes, steam exhausts, signs, roof houses, not exceeding twelve feet square and twelve feet high, nor to other similar constructions such as are usually erected above the roof line of buildings."

The constitutionality of this act was contested, and the case was carried to the Supreme Court of the United States, which decided on May 17, 1909 (Mr. Justice

Peckham delivering the opinion of the Court). "The ground of objection of plaintiff in error to this legislation is that the statutes unduly and unreasonably infringe upon his constitutional rights. (a) As to taking of property without compensation; (b) As to denial of equal protection of the laws."

Mr. Justice Peckham further stated, "In relation to the discrimination or classification made between the commercial and the residential portion of the city, the State court holds in this case that there is reasonable ground therefor in the very great value of the land and the demand for space in those parts of Boston where a greater number of buildings are used for the purpose of business or commercially than where the buildings are situated in the residential portion of the city, and where no such reason exist for high buildings. While so deciding the court cited, with approval, *Commonwealth vs. Boston Advertising Company*, Mass. 348, which holds that the police power cannot be exercised for a merely aesthetic purpose. The court distinguishes between the two cases and sustains the present statutes. As to the conditions adopted by the commission for permitting the erection in either of the districts B, that is, the residential portion, of buildings of over eighty feet, but never more than one hundred, that the width on each and every public street on which the building stands shall be at least one-half its height, the court refuses to hold that such conditions was entirely for aesthetic reasons. The Chief Justice said: "We conceive that the safety of adjoining buildings, in view of the risk of the falling of walls after a fire, may have entered into the purpose of the commissioners. We are of opinion that the statutes and orders of the commissioners are constitutional."

"We are not prepared to hold that this limitation of eighty to one hundred feet, while in fact a discrimination or classification, is so unreasonable that it deprives the owner of the property of its profitable use without justification, and that he is therefore entitled, under the Constitution, to compensation for such invasion of his rights. The discrimination thus made is, as we think, reasonable, and is justified by the police power."

The judgment of the State court upholding the constitutionality of the act creating these two zones was thus affirmed by the Supreme Court of the United States chiefly on the above grounds.

A similar districting has also been made in Baltimore, Md.

(d) Districting of Foreign Cities.

Many continental cities have also established the principle of creating different districts with designated building regulations, varying according to local conditions.

In the City of Dusseldorf, Germany, for instance, there are nine separate districts, the same number in Munich, while Cologne has six districts, each with its own designated and distinct building code and regulations. The height of the buildings in the districts in Cologne vary from 4 stories and mansard and a ground floor in one district with the permissible use of 80 to 75 per cent. of the lot area to a height of ground floor and two stories and the permissible use of only 40 per cent. of the lot area, while in one district building is in accordance with an arrangement with the city, and then only 50 per cent. of the covered area may be occupied. With the exception of Berlin, most of the large cities of Germany have such districts with varying heights of buildings and varying proportion of lot area occupied by buildings. A similar system of districting is common in Austria and Switzerland. Vienna has 5 districts, with regulations similar to those of Dusseldorf, Munich and Cologne.

(e) Distribution of Factories by Prohibiting the Locating of Factories in Certain Districts.

Owing to the desirability of eliminating the cost of transit and of carfare of workmen in cost of production, the danger of permitting the concentration of factories in limited sections, and the desirability of keeping factories out of residential sections, part of the fundamental city plan of German cities is the wide distribution of factories, by prohibiting their location in certain districts. One of the notable illustrations of the successful application of this regulation is in the city of Frankfurt-on-the-Main, which has a population of approximately 450,000. Certain parts of the city are known as factory districts, and in these districts only workers in the factories located therein may reside. Other sections are called residential sections, and no factories may be located there, while in the third class of districts, known as mixed districts, both tenements and factories are permitted. In Toronto, Canada, also by Ordinances of 1910, the location of factories in certain sections of the city is prohibited.

In many American cities the location of factories in certain districts is prohibited by private restriction. In both America and foreign countries, however, active assistance to the distribution of factories is afforded by the provision of means for carrying freight, by sidings, light railroads, or by improving the waterfronts.

(f) Fireproofing Requirements.

In Chicago the construction of tenements over three stories in height has been practically prevented by section 450 of the Building Code, which requires that every new tenement more than 5 stories and basement shall be of fireproof construction, and every new tenement of three stories and basement and not more than 5 stories shall be of slow burning and fireproof construction. Certain limits have been put upon the heights of buildings in different sections of Cleveland also by fireproofing requirements.

(g) Restriction With Reference to the Width of Streets.

In most European cities, outside of the countries to which reference has already been made, the height of the building is based upon the street widths, and the maximum height permitted in almost every case is under 100 feet, including all buildings. In London, the maximum height is, except by special consent of the London County Council, 80 feet; while on streets less than 50 feet wide no buildings can exceed the width of the street. In Paris the maximum height is 91 feet, and there are further restrictions on streets less than 65 feet wide. In Berlin the maximum height is usually 50 feet (in streets to be built up one side 60 feet) and except in special cases buildings may not exceed the street width. In Vienna the maximum is 62 feet and not more than $5\frac{1}{2}$ stories; additional towers, studios, etc., are allowed on streets 60 feet wide, if they do not affect the sunlight. In Brussels the maximum height is 69.2 feet; on streets less than 49.5 feet wide the permitted height is less.

In Many American cities, the height of buildings other than tenements is also limited by the width of the streets, thus in St. Louis, Washington and Boston buildings may not exceed 100 feet on any street 40 feet wide, on streets 60 feet wide buildings may not exceed 110 feet in Washington, 125 feet in Boston, 150 feet in Cleveland and St. Louis, 175 feet in Baltimore and 260 feet in Chicago, and on streets 100 feet wide the same heights as on 60 feet wide are permitted in Washington, Boston and Chicago, 200 feet in Cleveland and 206 feet in St. Louis, but an effort is being made in Chicago to reduce the maximum height from 260 feet to 200 feet.

2. *Methods of Taxation.*

Certain methods of taxation have been adopted in foreign countries, because of their effect upon preventing congestion of population. (a) Taxing land at a higher rate of taxation than buildings. (b) A tax upon the increment of land values. The former system of taxation is in vogue in a large number of Canadian cities, where the tax rate on land is double the tax rate on buildings. In many cities there is now being urged as a means of encouraging the construction of buildings and consequently reducing the rents, the removal of the tax entirely from buildings and the levying of taxes upon land alone.

In a number of Australasian countries, too, land is taxed at a much higher rate than buildings.

The tax on the increment of land values has been in operation in several German cities for a relatively few years. The testimony as to the effects of such a tax on land speculation and keeping down the value of land and encouraging the building of cheap dwellings is conflicting. The Oberbürgermeister of Frankfurt, Dr. Addicks, is of the opinion that such a tax has this effect. On the other hand, a commission of the Senate of Hamburg informs us that the land increment tax has had no influence on either land speculation or the building of cheap dwellings and that it would be difficult to find proof that it has reduced land values. The present land increment tax was adopted in Hamburg in 1908. Prior to that time money made in land speculation was as income subjected to the income tax. The change was made in order to reach land owners not residents of the city. A communication from Hamburg calls attention to the fact that losses sustained in land speculation may be deducted from the income, subject to the income tax.

In most German cities the taxation on increase of land values is levied at the time of sale. The tax is progressive in Frankfurt-on-the-Main. If less than twenty years have elapsed since the date of last transfer a tax of 2 per cent. is levied on the increased value if it amounts to 15 to 20 per cent., anything under 15 per cent. being exempt, and 10 per cent. of the increased value is taken if for more than 55 to 60 per cent., and an additional tax of 1 per cent. for every 5 per cent. increase in valuation to a maximum amount of 25 per cent.

3. *To Control Overcrowding and Sanitary Conditions.*

Most Tenement Laws in the United States require that there shall be in every apartment at least one room, with not less than 120 square feet of floor area, and that all other rooms, with the exception of the water closet and bath rooms, must contain at

least 70 square feet of floor area. Cleveland and San Francisco have the maximum of other cities, but require all other rooms to contain 80 square feet, and in Boston the requirement for all other rooms is not less than 90 square feet, and also that all habitable rooms must be 9 feet in the clear from floor to ceiling. Chicago, Boston, Cleveland and San Francisco require them to be 8 feet 6 inches, while some cities permit them to be as low as 8 feet.

The London County Council require that the minimum superficial area of one-room tenements must be 144 square feet, two-room tenements must have one room of this area, and one of at least 96 square feet. Similar provisions obtain in most English cities.

With the exception of Cleveland, Rochester, New Orleans, Los Angeles and Denver, the uniform requirement of cities is that no room shall contain less than 400 cubic feet of air space for every person. Cleveland requires 500 cubic feet of air space for every adult, and 300 for every child under 12 years of age. Rochester requires 500 cubic feet of air space for adults, and one-tenth as much floor space for every occupant of a room. New Orleans requires 600 cubic feet of air space, and in Denver the number of occupants must not exceed one for every 700 cubic feet of air space, and the room must be provided with means for frequent renewal of air.

Glasgow requires, in addition to this minimum of 400 cubic feet of air space, that in every apartment one room must contain 1,000 cubic feet, apartments of two rooms 1,600 cubic feet, three rooms 2,400 cubic feet, and not more than 16 apartments are permitted in any tenement with an inside common staircase, or more than four separate apartments on any floor. Machinery for enforcing these regulations is provided in a number of cities. Boston provides that the Board of Health may take reasonable regulations governing overcrowding. Glasgow employs what is known as "ticketed tenements" system, under which, whenever the cubical contents of tenements of not more than three rooms does not exceed 2,000 cubic feet, an inspector is required to affix to the door a ticket stating the number of occupants who may occupy the room as sleeping room, and a sanitary inspector may enter any such apartment at any time of the day or night to see that the said provisions are not being violated, and the system apparently works without friction. Similar provisions exist in Liverpool, where also a common lodging house or house allowing any lodger or occupied by members of more than one family, must be registered and be under the inspection of the Department of Health. Toronto, Canada, has similar provisions, and the law is enforced by sanitary inspectors, who have the right to enter any tenement or lodging house where there is reason to believe there is any overcrowding. A similar law is in force in Washington, D. C. Placards are placed upon the door of each sleeping room in tenements or lodging houses stating the number of persons 10 years of age or over that may together occupy the room as a sleeping room. The agent or owner or person having charge of the building is then notified that they shall not permit any such room to be occupied as sleeping rooms by a greater number of persons than stated on said placard. The Department has often had offenders fined for violating this regulation. The penalty is a fine of \$100, or imprisonment in the workhouse for not more than ninety days, or both, such fine and imprisonment in the discretion of the Court.

Overcrowding of land is prevented also by additional regulations in different cities. London requires that the rear of every dwelling house open upon a space exclusively belonging to it of not less than 150 square feet, and in all cases the open space must be at least 10 feet wide and extend throughout the entire width of the building. Glasgow ensures open spaces by the provision that in front of at least one-half of every window in all sleeping apartments there must be an open space equal to at least three-fourths of the height of the wall in which each window is placed from the floor of the apartment to the roof of the building; such space to be measured in a straight line perpendicular to the plane of the window.

Many large foreign cities have demolished large areas of unsanitary dwellings through clearance schemes. This has been attended with very large expense in practically every city where it has been undertaken. The methods chiefly followed in American cities to provide for the condemnation of insanitary buildings has been to declare them vacated. Provisions for vacating tenements and other buildings in New York City are made by the Charter, but little has been done in this respect here. Through the action of a special board for the Condemnation of Insanitary Buildings in the District of Columbia, during the first four and one-half years up to June 10, 1910, 1,024 insanitary buildings were demolished in that district, and 1,226 were repaired and placed in sanitary and habitable conditions.

The Board of Survey of Chicago has similar authority, and from October, 1908, to August 1, 1910, they ordered the demolition of 43 insanitary buildings, while 26 were repaired and made habitable.

4. *City Policy of Distribution by Education.*

The value of educational effort and training for rural occupations has been appreciated and tried in a number of cities in this country and abroad. Ulm, Germany, follows the policy of teaching children gardening and encouraging the keeping of gardens, putting a premium on them by offering prizes. The city requires also that a certain proportion of the entire lot area shall be devoted to gardens in sections of the city, and that the gardens in front of the house occupied by working people shall be kept in good condition. Philadelphia, Cleveland and Washington, in this country, have also undertaken a far-reaching system of training in gardening, and have established these school gardens and farm gardens in various sections of the city under the charge of the Department of Education. In Philadelphia, approximately \$35,000 in a single year has been appropriated for this work of training children to live outside of the congested districts. The Vacant Lot Associations also have done a good deal to interest people in removing from congested sections of the city, and this method has the encouragement in a number of foreign cities of exemption from taxation, while in American cities, holders of land often grant the use of land to the general public without any charge.

5. *Transit Lines as a Means of Distributing Population.*

Transit lines may be used either to congest population or to distribute population. In Berlin, owing to the zone system of fares, high tenements of five and six stories are constructed right up to the zone limits with cheap fares; the people living in these would be glad if the fare were uniform to go where land is cheap and the rents lower. Many foreign cities, however, notably those of England, Scotland, Germany, Switzerland, Austria and Belgium, have recognized the value of transit lines as a means of distributing population.

In many American cities the transit lines have not been successful in securing the distribution of population, while the multiplicity of lines has resulted in the necessity for transfers. A few cities in the United States, however, have successfully required the construction of extensions as a means of distributing population. Thus the franchises of the Indianapolis Street Railway Company provides that the City "may require such reasonable extensions of the several lines of the street railway of the second part (the Indianapolis Street Railway Company), or the construction of any such individual lines as may be necessary for the efficient operation of such railway and for the convenience of the public." These extensions must also be constructed within a reasonable time, to be fixed by the city itself. Similar provisions require such extensions by the Minneapolis street railway companies, and dates back to July 17, 1875. A similar clause was placed in the franchise of the Milwaukee Electric Railway Company franchise, January 2, 1900.

In the grant given to the Columbus Street Railway Company, February, 1901, it is provided that the Council may by ordinance require reasonable extensions of such of the lines operated by this Company for the convenience of the public whenever along the lines of any such proposed extensions and between parallel lines 400 feet in distance on each side thereof there shall be when extensions are ordered not less than 150 separate buildings used or occupied as dwellings per mile, and in like proportion for any less distance, although the Company is not required to construct more than one mile of extension within one calendar year. The three cent fare line which is in operation in Cleveland has also been an important factor in securing the distribution of population.

6. *Industrial Courts and Municipal Bureaus of Labor.*

Owing to the close relation between poverty and congestion of population and the fact that unemployment and underemployment are so largely causes of poverty, many foreign cities have organized Industrial Courts in which differences between employers and workers are settled by arbitration of an impartial court representing both interests affected and outside members as well. Most of the large English cities have also Municipal Labor Bureaus or exchanges, through which not only is employment found for workers outside of the city, but by co-operation of local manufacturers and employers of labor, thousands secure employment in the city.

7. *Municipal Housing, Co-operation of the State in Housing Enterprises.*

England has led in municipal housing, and while in most of the cities the cost of municipal housing has been a heavy charge upon the rate payers (taxpayers) of the cities, nevertheless it has resulted in diminishing congestion and room overcrowding. Formerly English municipalities constructed large tenements, but in recent years they have built chiefly one and two-family houses in the outlying sections of the cities, and effectively prevented overcrowding per acre in this way. In Germany, France, Italy, Belgium, Denmark and Austria, among continental countries, the State has co-

operated in securing better housing for the wage earning population by granting State aid and permitting loans by municipalities to co-operating housing enterprises and societies, whose net profit is limited to a low percentage. In Germany the Federal Government makes loans to municipalities from the accumulated funds of the State insurance for sickness, old age, etc., and the loan is made at the rate of from 3½ to 4 per cent. There is in Germany practically no municipal construction of tenements except for municipal employees.

8. *Co-Partnership Housing.*

This movement, while of comparatively recent growth, is nevertheless an extremely important method of enabling wage earners with limited incomes to secure their homes by owning shares of a co-partnership company to an amount equal to the value of their homes. This movement has been especially successful in England. A member of the co-partnership company who occupies a house pays rent, which includes a certain amount applied to the acquisition of stock in the company, and when he has paid the cost of his house he ceases to pay rent and is paid a dividend on the stock held by him.

9. *The English Town Planning Act.*

This Act was passed by Parliament in 1909, and has not been in operation a sufficient length of time to permit of any definite valuation of its effects in preventing congestion. A similar Act, however, passed in Liverpool several years ago, has reduced the maximum permissible density of population to under 100 per acre by restricting the number of cottages which may be constructed per acre. The English Town Planning Act provides that cities may restrict the number of cottages per acre in new sections of the city and may also determine the laying out or planning of any development. By the terms of this Act, the same authority is given English municipalities as is exercised by German and other continental municipalities to prohibit the location of factories in certain sections of the city where their presence would tend to create congestion, and to encourage by this restrictive authority the distribution of factories so as to eliminate the cost of transit to the laborer, and hence to increase the value to him of his present wages.

10. *Garden Cities and Garden Suburbs.*

A movement of much promise, which, however, has not achieved much numerical success, is the Garden Cities and the Garden Suburbs movement, which tends to establish manufacturing centres outside of the centres of great cities. In England, France and Germany, societies have been organized for the express purpose of encouraging the location of factories at a distance of from 25 to 50 miles from large centres of population, and also of encouraging the development of garden cities and suburbs within the boundaries of these great cities by establishing nuclei of factories of such number and of such variety that they may be supplemental and that at least some of them will be in operation during the entire year.

Among the successful illustrations of garden cities may be mentioned Bourneville, near Birmingham; Port Sunlight, across the Mersey from Liverpool; and Garden City, Herts County, about 45 miles from London. Large corporations in this country, such as the United States Steel Co., and its subsidiary companies, have also recognized the economic value of manufacturing in small centres. Gary, Indiana, and a number of small places in the manufacturing States of the South are illustrations of this effort to manufacture where operatives can live under more sanitary and economic conditions than is possible in the great cities.

The clothing manufacturers of Chicago are also organizing a movement to remove to the outskirts of the city and even outside of Cook County.

11. *Industrial Directories.*

Lack of information of the opportunities and advantages of manufacturing in small cities is one reason for the concentration of factories in large centres. The States of New Jersey and Massachusetts have attempted to overcome the concentration of factories and consequently of population by securing and disseminating throughout the State information regarding manufacturing, industrial and economic advantages of manufacturing in small places. The State of New Jersey publishes annually an Industrial Directory, giving for all villages of over 100 population a statement of the advantages of manufacturing, including information regarding the railroad connections, freight rates, water power, natural resources, labor market, nationalities, etc., and as the result of this directory there has been a much wider distribution of population throughout the State of New Jersey than in New York State.

12. *Small Holdings and Allotments.*

The State or Central Government in several continental countries and England have attempted to secure a wider distribution of population through the Small Holdings and Allotments Acts. This system has been very successful in Denmark. The report of the Scottish Deputation states: "There can be no doubt that in Denmark the Government, by the promulgation of the many laws so beneficial to the agricultural community, have attained the object which all along they have had in view, namely, the arresting of the depopulation of the country, which was fast taking place, owing to the difficulty in finding employment and the consequent immigration to the towns and emigration to foreign countries. As the result of such a policy, in conjunction with the excellent methods of education and co-operation systematically carried on, we find a contented, intelligent and patriotic peasantry."

There were in 1903 in Denmark, 232,936 holdings having a total acreage of 6,479,402 acres, the average holding thus being about $23\frac{1}{2}$ acres, and of these estates 90 per cent. are occupied by their owners.

Over 96,000 acres have been acquired under the Small Holdings and Allotment Act of 1908, by the English Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, by County Councils and the Councils of County Boroughs, or were under consideration by these legislative bodies on December 31, 1910. Of this acreage in England and Wales, 58,250 acres were acquired by purchase and 37,861 acres by lease, representing a total of 1,259 separate acquisitions of land. The size of the individual holdings vary from 3 acres under certain conditions to a usual maximum of 16 acres.

13. *Co-operation.*

Foreign countries, as well as private individuals in foreign countries, have recognized that in order to attract people to farms and small towns, farming and life in small towns must be made not only more attractive, but more profitable. It has been found in foreign countries, as in the United States, that the farmer gets a relatively small part of the price paid by the consumer for his product, and a consistent and well-organized effort has been made to eliminate the middleman and to reduce the cost of farm produce to the consumer, as well as to increase the profits of the producers through co-operative stores. This has been uniquely successful in Denmark, where it is stated that owing to co-operation, the value of the peasant farm is 50 per cent. greater than the value in larger holdings, and at the same time the cost of produce is reduced to the consumer in the city through co-operative stores.

14. *Outdoor Relief, Distress Committees and Relief Work.*

Most foreign countries have outdoor relief, that is, assistance to poor families in their homes. Where this relief is carelessly administered, it tends to anchor people in congested districts and in insanitary homes. Old age pensions in England, however, have had a marked effect upon the housing standard of the English poor. English cities have also organized Distress Committees to provide relief work for their poor, and much more attention has been given to this method than has been done in America.

15. *Compulsory Insurance.*

The necessity of saving a certain amount with the requirement that the employer should also contribute toward sickness and old age pension, has had a marked effect in Germany in improving the housing standard of the wage earners after they are incapacitated from further earning, although the requirement that the workers should save a certain amount during their working period reduces to some extent the amount which they can spend for their housing or any other purpose. In the main, however, the compulsory development of legitimate thrift has had a beneficial effect in improving the standard of living.

16. *Emigration.*

Immigration to this country means emigration from foreign countries, and to the extent to which the pressure for employment has been reduced, the wages have tended to increase so that the pressure of population of many foreign countries has been materially reduced.

17. *Shortening Hours of Labor.*

No statistical information has been secured by the Commission as to the results of the gradual shortening of hours of labor, but opinions have been expressed by those qualified to judge that this has been an important factor in securing a distribution of population employed in factories.

18. *Custom as an Effect in Securing Distribution of Population.*

It must be recognized that in many cities of the country, such as Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Detroit, Milwaukee, St. Louis, Rochester and Buffalo, al-

though under the Building Laws and Tenement Laws the building of tenements of the same height as those permitted in New York City is legal, nevertheless, few tenements of over three stories in height have been constructed, while two-family houses predominate in most of these cities. This is primarily due to the inherited traditions and examples of the past, which have been extremely important factors in encouraging such construction and preventing until recent years the beginning of high tenements.

19. *Vocational and Continuation Schools.*

While the Commission has not made any investigation of the organization of the educational systems of foreign governments, it has noted that the cities in England and Germany have taken the lead in training young people as well as adults and increasing economic productiveness through vocational and continuation schools. The latter are largely conducted at night, and although a fee is often charged for the service, they are largely attended by young apprentices and mechanics and others desiring to increase their earning capacity. To some extent this has been done in American cities, including New York, in the past few years.

20. *Organized Labor.*

Unquestionably the most important and general private agency or organization in improving housing standards have been the labor unions throughout the world, since they have insisted that their members be paid enough to permit them to maintain a reasonable standard of living and have placed housing as one of the fundamental elements in a reasonable standard of living, while they have also shortened the hours of labor. Their efforts have, however, been chiefly successful in preventing room overcrowding, except where they have secured better housing regulations, which would restrict congestion through preventing the intensive use of land and the construction of high buildings.

21. *Methods of Distributing Immigration.*

The system of distribution of immigrants in Canada, has, the Federal Immigration Commission reports, been most successful. This is due largely to the development of western Canada and to the purpose of the government to populate that region with selected settlers. To further this end, Canada has developed an immigration policy which is officially expressed as follows:

1. Money is expended and administration is exercised with the object of securing immigrants whose purpose in life is to occupy farm lands, either as owners, tenants or laborers.

2. Money is voted and administration is exercised with the object of excluding those whose presence in Canada would tend to add to the congestion of the towns and cities.

Although Canada makes persistent effort to promote immigration from desirable countries, it attempts only to secure those who will work on farms. The Canadian law, although designed to exclude the same class of physical, mental and moral defectives and delinquents, as the Immigration Law of the United States, nevertheless does not contain any provisions regarding polygamists, anarchists or contract laborers, although such persons are specifically excluded by the United States Law.

The Federal Immigration Commission report states: "The most striking feature of the Canadian Immigration Law, and the one in which it differs most widely from the United States Law, is its flexibility or adaptability to emergencies or changed conditions. The Canadian Law confers almost unlimited power on the governor in council in matters respecting immigration. In fact, it would seem from the terms of the law that the administration could, if deemed desirable, not only prohibit any particular class of immigration, but practically prohibit all immigration to Canada.

The Canadian Law and policy already developed under the law in this regard are clearly illustrated by reference to sections 10, 20 and 30 of the immigration act and to instances of procedure under such sections, section 10, above referred to, is as follows:

The Governor in Council may, on the recommendation of the Minister, make such orders and regulations, not inconsistent with this Act, as are considered necessary or expedient for the carrying out of this Act, according to its true intent and meaning, and for the better attainment of its object.

In practice this section has evidently assumed an importance beyond what is suggested by a casual reference to its terms."

The report of the Federal Immigration Commission also analyzes the proposed amendment to the Canadian Immigration Law as follows:

"One feature of the above-mentioned bill, taken from the Australian Immigra-

tion Act, proposes to confer on the minister of the interior the right to issue a written permit to any person to enter Canada without being subject to provisions of the Immigration Act." On the other hand, it is proposed to invest the government with power to order undesirable immigrants to leave Canada. Other sections of the proposed law aim to give the governor in council authority to:

(a) Prohibit the landing in Canada or at any specified port of entry in Canada of any immigrant who has come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native or naturalized citizen, and upon a through ticket purchased in that country.

(b) Prohibit the landing in Canada of passengers brought to Canada by any transportation company which refuses or neglects to comply with the provisions of this Act.

(c) Prohibit for a stated period or permanently the landing in Canada or the landing at any specified port of entry in Canada, of immigrants belonging to any race deemed unsuited to the climate or requirements of Canada, or of immigrants of any specified class, occupation or character.

In short, it would appear from the proposed law that it is intended to confer upon the government the right to admit, exclude or deport immigrants whenever the circumstances warrant.

"Although the number of immigrants rejected under the Canadian Act is proportionately much smaller than under the United States Law, Canada has an additional safeguard, or second line of defense, in the provision of the Immigration Act which makes possible a general deportation of aliens who become public charges within two years after their landing in the Dominion."

Section 33 of the Immigration Act has, as the Commission reports, "practically established a probationary period of two years during which admitted immigrants may be effectively tested physically, mentally, morally and industrially, and deported to the country whence they came if found unworthy. The deportation provision in the present Canadian immigration law became effective July 13, 1906. Deportations were possible, however, previous to that time, and the record shows that between January 1, 1903, and March 31, 1909, 3,148 aliens were deported."

The Commission continues: "Canada's contract labor policy is exceedingly interesting in comparison with the United States policy in that regard. An immigrant coming to Canada without having first assured himself that some definite employment awaits him is quite likely to be debarred on that account from entering, while an immigrant who comes to the United States with such assurance and admits it, is necessarily excluded as a contract laborer."

V. RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION FOR RELIEVING THE PRESENT AND PREVENTING FUTURE CONGESTION OF POPULATION AND ROOM OVERCROWDING.

1. *Restriction of the Height or Volume of Buildings Other Than Tenements.*

(a) That no building hereafter to be erected in Manhattan, south of the south side of 181st st., shall exceed a cubage or volume of 174 times the area of the lot, and that no building be altered to exceed this cubage. This means that no building shall exceed a height of 174 feet covering the entire area of the lot. If each story were 12 feet in height this would permit of a height of 14 stories with a basement, which would not in any way seriously affect existing land values since a large part of the values of the site is due to accessibility to the multitudes on thoroughfares for stores and commercial purposes, on the first floor.

(b) That no building hereafter to be erected in any part of New York City, except in Manhattan, south of the south side of 181st st., shall exceed a cubage or volume of 120 times the area of the lot, and that no building in this district shall be altered to exceed this cubage. This means a restriction to about ten stories covering the entire area of the lot.

(c) That every building over four stories or 50 feet in height to be occupied as a factory, loft, warehouse or other miscellaneous buildings be of fireproof construction.

(d) That when the height of any building except one to be used as a factory, loft, warehouse or other miscellaneous buildings does not exceed one hundred feet (instead of twelve stories, or more than one hundred and fifty feet, as provided in the present building code), the doors and windows and their frames, the trims, the casings, the interior finish when filled solid at the back with fireproof material, and the floor boards and sleepers directly underneath may be of wood.

(e) That when the height of any fireproof building except one to be used as a factory, loft, warehouse or other miscellaneous building exceeds one hundred and fifty feet, no wood may be used in the floors or as sleepers even if treated by some process now approved by the Board of Buildings to render them fireproof, nor for the inside

window frames and sash, doors, trim and other interior finish as permitted by the present building code.

(f) That no factory or loft building hereafter to be erected shall exceed a cubage or volume of one hundred and thirty-two times the area of the lot, and that no building hereafter altered to exceed this cubage or volume shall be used for factory or loft purposes.

2. *Restriction Upon the Lot Occupancy of Buildings Other Than Tenements.*

(a) That at the year of every factory and loft building hereafter erected, there shall be provided a yard open and unobstructed from the street level to the sky across the entire width of the lot and of a depth equal to one-tenth of the height of the building, but in no case less than one-tenth of the depth of the lot, or if the lot be under one hundred feet in depth, of a depth of less than ten feet and that no premises or building hereafter erected shall be converted to or occupied as a factory or loft that does not conform to this requirement.

(b) That there shall be a yard extending across the rear of lot of every dwelling hereafter erected to be occupied by more than one family equal to 10 per cent. of the depth of the lot, unobstructed from the ground level to the sky, and all rooms of such dwellings shall open and ventilate upon a street, yard, or court, not less than 4 feet wide or upon an offset to such court the depth of which does not exceed the width of same.

3. *Restriction Upon the Height of Tenements.*

(a) That no tenement house hereafter erected shall exceed in height the width of the widest street upon which it stands and that no tenement shall be increased in height, so that it shall exceed in height the width of the widest street upon which it stands.

(b) That no tenement house hereafter erected in The City of New York, except in the Borough of Manhattan, south of the south side of 181st st. shall exceed four stories in height, except that for every fifteen percentum of the lot area left unoccupied less than the maximum occupancy that is now legally permissible an additional story shall be permitted and a tenement house may be five stories high without being of fireproof construction if it occupy fifteen percentum less of the lot area than is now legally permissible.

(c) That every tenement house hereafter erected exceeding four stories or parts of stories or fifty feet in height above the curb level shall be a fireproof tenement house, and that no tenement house be altered so as to exceed such height without being made a fireproof tenement house.

(d) That tenements in outlying districts of the City be restricted to three stories in height and an equivalent restriction be put upon the volume or cubage of all buildings other than tenements, and that the Board of Aldermen and Board of Estimate and Apportionment should determine these districts or zones for a period of twenty years.

4. *Modifications of the Tenement House Law Respecting Three-Family Tenements to Encourage the Construction of These Small Tenements with Few Families, as Follows:*

(a) That buildings not exceeding 30 feet in height, need not have fire-escapes or stairs extending to the roof.

(b) That in tenement houses hereafter erected, not exceeding three stories and cellar in height, and arranged to be occupied by not more than one family on a floor and three families in all, in lieu of stairs there shall be an iron ladder to the roof placed at an angle of 60 degrees, and constructed as required by the Tenement House Law, and that the width of stairs in such a three-story tenement be two feet and nine inches.

(c) That a scuttle shall be provided for a three-family tenement, twenty-four by thirty-six inches, with a scuttle cover provided with a counter balance weight.

(d) That in tenements not exceeding three stories in height, the stair-wells may be reduced to a width of ten inches to extend from entrance floor to the roof.

(e) That windows in three-family tenements may be placed in vent shafts in existing buildings when windows are used to afford additional light in halls, provided that such windows are stationary and frames are fireproof and glazed with wire glass.

(f) That in three-story buildings where the bulkhead to the roof is omitted, fire-escapes and balconies with connecting ladders be placed on the rear of the building in accordance with such regulations as may be adopted by the Tenement House Department.

5. *Measures to Prevent Room and Apartment Overcrowding.*

(a) That no room in any tenement house hereafter to be constructed shall have a superficial area of less than 90 square feet, and that in every apartment there must be at least one room whose superficial area is at least 150 square feet.

(b) That no apartment in a tenement house or two-family house shall be so overcrowded that there shall be afforded less than 400 cubic feet of air space for every adult, and 300 cubic feet of air space for every child under 12 years of age occupying such apartment, and that a penalty of a fine not to exceed \$25 shall attach for each violation of this provision. The provision of the present Tenement House Law regarding room overcrowding applies to rooms, but it is not feasible in the judgment of the Commission to enforce this in rooms, since they vary so in dimensions and cubical contents, and the Commission therefore recommends that apartment instead of rooms be made the measure of occupancy.

(c) That a placard should be posted by the Tenement House and Health Departments in a conspicuous place in every apartment of tenement houses, and in two-family houses respectively, calling attention to the fact that the law forbids more than the stated number of adults and children to occupying the apartment, and to the penalty attaching to a violation of this law.

(d) That no lessee of any department in any tenement house shall be permitted to take lodgers without notifying in writing the owner or responsible agent of the tenement or dwelling, who shall immediately report to the Tenement House Department, and that a penalty not to exceed \$25 shall attach for each violation of this provision.

(e) That the owner or responsible agent of every tenement and two-family dwelling be required to report to the Tenement House Department and the Department of Health respectively any violation of the law against overcrowding on the part of his tenants, where he is unable personally to prevent such overcrowding by serving the tenant with a written statement (of which the owner is to keep a copy), that he is violating the law, and that the lessee of an apartment in a tenement house secure a license from the Tenement House Department and the lessee of an apartment in a two-family house secure a license from the Department of Health before taking lodgers.

(f) That a Bureau of Occupancy be created in the Department of Health charged with the enforcement of the law against overcrowding in apartments of two-family houses.

6. *Measures to Secure Better Conditions of Labor.*

First—The enlargement of the State Department of Labor in New York City by providing:

- (a) A Deputy Commissioner of Labor for New York City.
- (b) More Factory Inspectors.
- (c) Appropriate legislation to enable the State Department of Labor to enforce its regulations.

Second—The creation of an Industrial Commission for New York City composed of three persons, one to be nominated by the Employers' Associations of the City, one by the Labor Unions of the City and one to be selected by the Mayor and all to be appointed by him. The duties of this Industrial Commission to be:

To investigate labor conditions and wages paid both skilled and unskilled workers of every class in the City, whether organized or not, and to investigate disputes when strikes or lockouts are threatened and after they occur.

Third—The creation by legislation of a series of employment offices in the larger cities of the State with special provisions for well equipped offices of this nature in New York City, or the creation of a Municipal Employment Bureau with several branches in New York City, including at least one in each Borough, which should keep a record of the opportunities for employment in New York City and outside, and furnish this information free or at a minimum charge to all looking for employment.

Fourth—The creation of a National Department of Labor, which should be co-ordinate with the Department of Commerce, the duties of this Department to be twofold:

- (a) To give the widest publicity throughout the State and country to the opportunities for work by a system of Labor Bureaus or Exchanges in different sections of the country.
- (b) To give the widest publicity throughout the country to the conditions of labor, and wages paid, permanency of employment and local conditions.

7. *Measures to Secure a Better Distribution of Factories.*

(a) That 500 cubic feet of air space be provided for every employee of any factory instead of 250 cubic feet of air space, as at present, and not less than 600 cubic feet of air space for every employee when employed between the hours of 6 in the evening and 6 in the morning, under the provisions of the present Labor Law.

(b) By adequate improvement of the waterfronts in all Boroughs with piers and docks for factory purposes and with warehouses.

(c) That freight lines be built connecting all the Boroughs as soon as possible.

(d) That the ferriage charges for trucks on Municipal Ferries be equalized to the present minimum.

(e) Further provisions for carrying trucks on Municipal Ferries by altering the existing boats so that they can carry four lines or rows of trucks, and by requiring that boats to be constructed in the future have the same capacity for trucks.

8. *Recommendations Regarding Parks, Playgrounds, Schools and Recreation Centres.*

(a) That the City acquire land early in advance of future public needs.

(b) That land for parks in the outlying Boroughs should be paid for partly by the property benefited, partly by the Borough in which located, and partly by the City at large.

(c) That adequate appropriations be made for the maintenance of parks and playgrounds and for their supervision.

(d) That adequate appropriation be made to the Department of Education to provide a teacher for every 40 pupils in the elementary schools on the basis of the registration, and within one-third of a mile of the homes of pupils ten years of age and under, and three-quarters of a mile of the homes of pupils over ten years of age, and further that a suitable schoolroom be provided on the same basis for every 40 pupils registered.

(e) That no school building outside of Manhattan should be over three stories in height nor have accommodations for more than 1,500 pupils, and that not more than 40 seats should be provided in ordinary classrooms in any elementary school.

(f) That adequate yard area should be purchased with every school site, so as to accommodate the children of the neighborhood.

(g) That the Department of Education be requested to give more instruction in physiology and hygiene, and impress upon the children the evils of room overcrowding and its physical effects.

(h) That greater provision be made for school farms and training in gardening.

(i) That the City provide more parks and playgrounds and recreation centres in the outlying districts.

9. *Measures to Keep Land Cheap and Promote the Provision of Good and Cheap Housing.*

(a) That the rate of taxation upon all buildings be half the rate of taxation upon all land, and that this reduction be secured by an equal change in each of five consecutive years.

(b) The question of recommending an unearned increment tax has been strongly advocated before the Commission. The principal argument advanced in support of the imposition of such a tax is that in nearly every instance where real estate values have increased such increase has been due wholly to public improvements and to the general development of the City, and in no way to action on the part of the property owner.

Some members of the Commission have strongly urged that this Commission should advocate such a tax to be levied annually on the increase in the assessed valuations of land—the proceeds of the tax to constitute a fund to be used exclusively for the construction of rapid transit undertakings.

The Commission has refrained from making such a recommendation because they believe that the subject requires greater study and investigation than they have been able to give it, and because there is a division of opinion among the members as to the expediency of such a tax at present. The Commission, however, refer this question to the officers of the City Government, with the request that it be examined and considered by them, and that public hearings be had in order to determine what action, if any, should be taken by the City with respect to this tax.

(c) That as a means of ascertaining the true price of land and of taxing it justly, the true price be required to be registered when the property is sold, so that the taxing officials may have definite information upon which to base their assessment.

Since a comprehensive system of transit is preferable for uniform and universal transfers and unified operation, and since subways and elevated lines furnish the key to urban transit systems and the control of these expensive links will, sooner or later, bring complete control of all street railway transit facilities, the following measures are advocated for the adequate development of the City's transit system:

(d) That the existing perpetual franchises should be terminated as opportunity offers by forfeiture, where, through neglect or non-compliance with the law, they should be forfeited, or through condemnation or through purchase or through negotiation, substituting modern short or indeterminate franchises for them.

(e) That the transit system of the city should be extended so as to utilize to their full capacity the subways, bridges and elevated lines, and so as to bring people from the outlying Boroughs directly into the principal business districts with quick service and for a single fare.

(f) That lines should be run into all sections of the City, although some such lines may not pay money profits at first, because they will be extremely profitable from the point of view of conserving the general welfare and prosperity of the citizens, and in developing the City.

(g) That the City extend its lines to the Queens side of the Queensborough Bridge and through the Steinway Tunnel into several portions of the Borough of Queens, and if this fails that the franchise for the use of the bridge and tunnel should provide for the operation for one fare, of extensions, into Queens.

(h) That all franchises for the operation of surface, elevated or subway lines shall contain a provision for transfers to and from all such lines which they own, operate or control.

(i) That a subway should be constructed as early as possible into the Borough of Richmond, to provide equal transit for its extensive area, and that pending the completion of such a route forty tickets should be sold for \$1.00 on the Municipal Ferry to Richmond for the relief of people of small or moderate means who live there. This is advocated because the City has constructed at enormous expense bridges connecting all other boroughs with Manhattan, and the use of these bridges is free, while there is no free connection with Richmond.

(j) That the Rapid Transit Law be so amended as to confer upon the Public Service Commission and the City authorities the same powers with respect to surface lines as they now have with respect to rapid transit lines.

(k) The preparation by the City through the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of a plan for the entire City which shall include the following items:

(1) The restriction of factories to certain districts.

(2) The provision of transit lines and means of carrying freight upon the basis of such a districting of the City.

(3) The determination of the main lines of streets and secondary streets as suggested by Mr. Nelson P. Lewis, Chief Engineer of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

(4) Provision of sewers and methods of sewage disposal and substructures for pipes.

(5) Provision of adequate sites for parks and playgrounds and recreation centres and Municipal buildings of various parts.

(6) Acquisition of adequate land by the City for all public purposes.

(1) That as a means of reducing rents, and with the sanction of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in each case, streets in outlying districts may be 30 feet wide, and houses be set back from 15 to 20 feet from the curb line so as to permit the widening of street subsequently at a small expense.

(m) That subways for passengers be provided at crowded street crossings.

(n) Excess condemnation of land, through which the city may acquire more land than is required for a specific improvement, and resell or rent the surplus.

10. *Measures to Promote Health and Safety.*

(a) That when in the judgment of the Tenement House Department the minimum requirement of window space and other means of ventilation and lighting required by the law are not sufficient in any tenement house apartment to make rooms sanitary and habitable, said Department shall be empowered upon a certificate being signed by two medical inspectors as to the above facts to cause the vacating of said apartment or part thereof in the manner prescribed by law.

(b) That a staff of medical inspectors who are qualified physicians shall be as signed by the Department of Health to the Tenement House Department, who shall pass upon all cases of vacating of an insanitary tenement house or part thereof in which there may be any contagious disease or which is unfit for human habitation, except in the case of new tenements awaiting a certificate of compliance.

(c) That the Tenement House Department of The City of New York shall at such times and in such manner as may to it seem best cause an inspection and examination to be made of all tenement houses, and wherever it shall be found that any such tenement house or part thereof is infected with contagious disease or that it is unfit for human habitation or occupancy, or dangerous to life or health by reason of want of repair or defects in the drainage, plumbing, lighting, ventilation, or the construction of the same, or by reason of the existence on the premises of a nuisance likely to cause sickness among the occupants of said house, the Department shall issue an order requiring all persons therein to vacate such house or part thereof within not

less than twenty-four hours nor more than ten days, for the reasons to be mentioned in said order, and that the Board of Health should cause a similar inspection and examination to be made of all buildings other than tenements.

(d) That whitewashing of tenement house walls every year be required by law.

(e) That in tenement houses not exceeding four stories in height and not having more than two families on each floor, with courts of the width now required, a family be permitted to occupy the basement.

(f) That the Commissioner of the Tenement House Department be made a member of the Board of Health, with a vote on all matters pertaining to his Department.

(g) That manufacturing in tenement houses be adequately regulated and if possible prohibited by law.

11. *Measures to Promote the Distribution of Population Through Municipal Control Over Charities and by Public Outdoor Relief.*

(a) The creation of a Board of Trustees of Public Outdoor Relief to be provided with an office, administrator and investigators which shall supervise the dispensing of outdoor relief to the dependent members of families of consumptives when after investigation into the circumstances of all such persons, it is established that the dependent members of the family of such consumptive or consumptives are not able to maintain themselves, provided however, that the dependent members of the family of such consumptive or consumptives move into a section of the City where the population is not greater than three hundred to the acre in the ward, and provided, also, that the dependent members of the family of such consumptive or consumptives are living under such surroundings as are approved by this Board or their representatives.

(b) That this Board of Trustees of Public Outdoor Relief shall have power to dispense outdoor relief to indigent widows with children, if such widows are competent to care for their children, provided, however, that they care for their children themselves and that they live in a ward having a density of less than three hundred to the acre and under such surroundings as are approved by this Board of Trustees of Public Outdoor Relief, or their representatives.

(c) The creation in the Comptroller's Office of a bureau for the supervision of all charitable institutions in The City of New York whose property is exempt from taxation under paragraph 7, of section 4 of the Tax Law.

The Chief Officer of this Bureau should be called the examiner of institutions and be appointed by the Comptroller to investigate the work done by these institutions and methods of accounting and report to the Comptroller from time to time as to whether these institutions are doing work which entitles them to exemption from taxation and should make recommendations to the institutions regarding the conduct of their work. The Comptroller should be authorized to appoint for the work of this Department as many expert accountants, examiners of accounts and other employees as he deems necessary.

(d) That the City encourage the removal of charitable institutions, except emergency hospitals and similar institutions, from the congested districts.

(e) The extension of the principle of the City Farm Colony and the acquisition of tracts of land by the City in the outlying boroughs for the extending of the work of the City Farm Colony and for teaching adults methods of earning a living such as agriculture and gardening.

(f) That the private charities of the City be urged to dispense their relief so as to encourage the distribution of population from congested districts and to encourage the recipients of their relief to learn other trades than those of congested city life.

12. *Recommendation Regarding Immigration.*

(a) Abolition of the time limit on the Government's right to deport aliens for cause.

(b) Progressive legislation looking toward the effective control over aliens by the Federal Government.

(c) That the Bureau of Industries and Immigration of the State Department of Labor be urged to encourage the immigrants to become farm laborers and to discourage the segregating of immigrants in congested sections of this City.

(d) Measures to prevent artificial stimulation of immigration.

(e) The establishment of City and State farms on the principles of those State institutions which have proved successful.

(f) Publication of information as to the opportunities in high schools and elsewhere to learn the English language.

(g) Change of Federal and State laws to provide for the immediate deportation of convicted aliens to relieve the overcrowding conditions of our State Penal Institutions, in which there is a large proportion of alien convicts.

13. *Recommendations Regarding Delinquency in Congested Districts.*

- (a) The closing of streets in the congested districts during certain hours of the day so that the children of those districts may use them for playgrounds.
- (b) That the Department of Education be urged to arrange talks for mothers on the danger to children of occupying rooms with lodgers.
- (c) That more physical exercise be provided for children in the Public Schools.

14. *Recommendations Regarding Public Squares and Buildings.*

(a) That there should be in every borough at least one large area for the public administration buildings in the Borough and a series of sub-civic centers with groupings of administration buildings.

(b) That there should be in each borough a grouping of public buildings such as schoolhouses, libraries, etc., except fire stations, in a park with open grounds around them.

(c) That the City provide recreational playhouses or at least sites for these in the civic centres.

The foregoing report is hereby respectfully submitted by order of the Commission.
JACOB A. CANTOR, Chairman.

The following are the bills and ordinances proposed by the Commission to carry their recommendations into effect:

AN ORDINANCE to amend the Building Code of The City of New York by the substitution for the present section 9 of a new section to be known as section 9, defining factories and lofts and limiting the construction thereof, and limiting the use of lots.

Be it enacted by the Board of Aldermen of The City of New York as follows:

Section 1. The Building Code of The City of New York is hereby amended by the substitution for the present section 9 of a new section to be known as section 9, to read as follows:

Section 9. A factory or loft building shall be construed to include every building occupied wholly or in part by any mill, workshop or any other manufacturing or business establishment where one or more persons are employed at labor. At the rear of every factory or loft building hereafter erected there shall be provided a yard open and unobstructed from the street level to the sky across the entire width of the lot and of a depth equal to one-tenth of the height of the building, but in no case less than one-tenth of the depth of the lot, or if the lot be under one hundred feet in depth, or a depth less than ten feet. No premises or building hereafter erected shall be converted to, or occupied as a factory or loft building that does not conform to this requirement. No factory or loft building hereafter to be erected shall exceed a cubage or volume of 132 times the area of the entire lot upon which it is located. No building hereafter to be constructed shall be converted to or be occupied as a factory or loft building unless it conforms to this requirement.

Sec. 2. This ordinance shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter in relation to Insanitary Rooms or Apartments.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section twelve hundred and ninety-nine of the Greater New York Charter, as re-enacted by chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the laws of nineteen hundred and one, is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 1299. Infected and Uninhabitable houses to be Condemned by Board of Health—[Whenever it shall be certified to the Board of Health of The City of New York by the Sanitary Superintendent or an Assistant Sanitary Superintendent that any building or any part thereof in The City of New York is infected with contagious disease, or by reason of want of repair has become dangerous to life, or is unfit for human habitation because of defects in drainage, plumbing, ventilation, or the construction of the same, or because of the existence of a nuisance on the premises, which is likely to cause sickness among its occupants, the said Board of Health may issue an order requiring all persons therein to vacate such building or part thereof for the reasons to be stated therein as aforesaid.] *The Board of Health of The City of New York shall at such times and in such manner as may to it seem best, cause an inspection and examination to be made of all buildings other than tenements in The City of New York, and wherever it shall be found that any such building or part thereof is infected with contagious disease, or by reason of want of repair has become dangerous to life or is unfit for human habitation or occupancy because of defects in drainage, lighting, plumbing, ventilation, or the construction of the same, or because of the existence of a nuisance on the premises, which is likely to cause sick-*

ness among its occupants, the said Board of Health shall issue an order requiring all persons therein to vacate such building or part thereof for the reasons to be stated herein as aforesaid.

Said Board shall cause said order to be affixed conspicuously in the building or part thereof and to be personally served on the owner, lessees, agent, occupant, or any person having the charge or care thereof; if the owner, lessee or agent cannot be found in The City of New York or does not reside therein, or evades or resists service, then said order may be served by depositing a copy thereof in the post-office, in The City of New York, properly enclosed and addressed to such owner, lessee, or agent at his last known place of business and residence, and on prepaying the postage thereon; such building or part thereof shall, within ten days after said order shall have been posted and mailed as aforesaid, or within such shorter time, not less than twenty-four hours, as in said order may be specified, be vacated, but said Board of Health, whenever it shall become satisfied that the danger from said building or part thereof has ceased to exist, or that said building had been repaired so as to be habitable, may revoke said order.

Sec. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ORDINANCE to restrict the cubage or volume of all buildings hereafter to be constructed in The City of New York.

Be it Ordained by the Board of Aldermen of The City of New York as follows:

Section 1. No building hereafter to be erected in the Borough of Manhattan, south of the south side of 181st street, shall exceed a cubage or volume of one hundred and seventy-four times the area of the lot upon which it is located, and no building hereafter to be erected in The City of New York, except in the Borough of Manhattan, south of the south side of 181st street shall exceed a cubage or volume of one hundred and twenty times the area of the lot upon which it is located. No building now erected in either of these two district shall be altered to exceed the maximum cubage permitted in such district.

Sec. 2. This Ordinance shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter by creating a Board of Trustees of Public Outdoor Relief in The City of New York.

The people of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Chapter thirteen of the Greater New York Charter as re-enacted by chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the laws of nineteen hundred and nine is hereby amended by the addition of a new title to be known as title five thereof, which shall contain a new section and to read as follows:

Title V.

Board of Trustees of Public Outdoor Relief in The City of New York.

Section 693-bl. On the first day of July, nineteen hundred and eleven, the authority to dispense public outdoor relief as provided in this section shall be vested in a board of trustees which shall be known as the Board of Trustees of Public Outdoor Relief, and which shall on this date undertake the duties herein prescribed.

Said Board of Trustees shall consist of seven residents of The City of New York, together with the commissioner of public charities, ex-officio. In the month of June, nineteen hundred and eleven, the Mayor of The City of New York shall appoint one resident of The City of New York to serve as such trustee for the term of one year, one for the term of two years, one for the term of three years, one for the term of four years and one for the term of five years, one for the term of six years and one for the term of seven years, from the first day of June, nineteen hundred and eleven. In the month of July, and on or before the twentieth day thereof, prior to the expiration of the term of office of any trustee, the mayor shall appoint his successor for the full term of seven years. The mayor shall fill any vacancy in the board caused by the death of a trustee, his resignation, removal from the city or otherwise, by the appointment of a trustee to hold office for the unexpired term. Every person appointed to serve as such trustee shall, before entering upon the duties of his office, take and subscribe the oath of office prescribed by the constitution of the state.

2. For the purpose of making the appointments aforesaid, the said mayor shall call upon the president or other executive head of each of the following organizations, to wit: The United Hebrew Charities of The City of New York, the Particular Council of New York of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul in New York, the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the Charity Organization Society of The City of New York, the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities and the Central Labor Union of Brooklyn to present a list of not less than twice the number of per-

sons to be appointed members of said board of trustees, to fill a vacancy or otherwise. Notice in writing of the dates in which appointments, including the first, to said board of trustees are proposed to be made shall be given by the mayor to each of said presidents or other executive heads at least ten days prior thereto, and such list of names shall be so presented within three days after the receipt of such notice. Said presidents or other executive heads may each submit, or two or more of them may jointly present, such a list of names. Appointments to said board of trustees may in the discretion of the mayor be made from such list or lists.

3. No trustee shall receive compensation for his services, materials or supplies of any kind to or for said relief by contract, or otherwise. No trustee shall hold any office of emolument under the city, county, state or national government, except the offices of notary public, or commissioner of deeds or offices in the national guard.

4. Said board of trustees shall organize within ten days after said trustees are appointed. It shall annually choose from its members, at a regular meeting to be held in the month of January, a president and a secretary for the term of one year. It shall establish rules and regulations for the administration and dispensing of said public outdoor relief. It shall administer the moneys appropriated for said public outdoor relief, subject to the general provisions of this act relative to the audit and payment of claims. Said board shall have power to appoint and at pleasure to remove such superintendents, subordinate officers and other employees as may be necessary for the efficient administration of said public outdoor relief, subject to the civil service laws and the rules and regulations of the municipal civil service commission. The board of trustees shall keep accurate and detailed accounts, in a form approved by the Comptroller, of all moneys received and expended by it, the sources from which they are received and the purposes for which they are expended. It shall, during the month of January in each year transmit to the mayor a report as to these under its care and the dispensing of public outdoor relief during the year ending the preceeding thirty-first day of December.

5. Said board of trustees shall have power to dispense outdoor relief to the dependent members of a family of a consumptive or consumptives when, after investigation into the circumstances of all such persons it is established that the dependent members of the family of said consumptive or consumptives are not able to maintain themselves, provided, however, that the dependent members of the family of such consumptive or consumptives move into sections of the City where the density of population is not greater than three hundred to the acre in the ward, and provided, also, that the dependent members of the family of such consumptive or consumptives are living under such surroundings as are approved by the said board of trustees or their representatives. The said board of trustees shall also have power to dispense outdoor relief to indigent widows with children if such widows are physically, mentally and morally competent to care for their children, provided, however, that they care for their children themselves and that they live in a ward in which the density of population is less than three hundred to the acre and under such surroundings as are approved by the said board of trustees or their representatives.

6. The board of estimate and apportionment and the board of aldermen shall in each year appropriate such sum as in their judgment may be necessary for public outdoor relief. It shall be the duty of the board of trustees of public outdoor relief to send to the board of estimate and apportionment, on or before the first day of September in each year, an estimate in writing of the sum needed for the ensuing year in the same manner and general form as the heads of departments and other boards of The City of New York are required to furnish.

Sec. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter in relation to the bureaus of the department of finance.

The people of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. There shall be in the department of finance of The City of New York in addition to the six bureaus now provided for by section 151 of this act, a seventh bureau, to be known as the bureau for the supervision of charitable institutions, exempt from taxation under paragraph 7, of section 4, of the General Tax Law of the State.

The chief officer of the bureau shall be called the Examiner of Charitable Institutions Exempt from Taxation, and shall be appointed by the Comptroller. He shall investigate the work done by these institutions, methods of accounting, and report to the Comptroller from time to time as to whether the institutions are doing work which entitles them to exemption from taxation, and shall make recommendations to the institutions regarding the conduct of their work. The Comptroller shall be authorized

to appoint for the work of this department as many expert accountants, examiners of accounts and other employees as he shall deem necessary.

Sec. 2. This act shall take effect January 1, 1912.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter by increasing the powers of the Board of Health.

The people of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Title one of chapter nineteen of the Greater New York Charter, as re-enacted by chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the laws of nineteen hundred and one, is hereby amended by adding a new section, to be known as section eleven hundred and eighty-five to read as follows:

Section 1185a—Inspection of Occupancy Bureau. The Board of Health of The City of New York shall organize a bureau, to be known as the Bureau of Inspection of Occupancy. This bureau shall be charged with the duty of ascertaining the cubical contents of all apartments in two family houses in The City of New York and shall post in a conspicuous place in such apartments a notice stating the number of occupants permitted by law to occupy such apartments. Said bureau shall also have charge of inspecting such apartments to ascertain that there is not a larger number of persons occupying them than is permitted by law, and of enforcing its provisions.

Sec. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter relative to the powers of the Board of Aldermen.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section four hundred and seven of the Greater New York Charter, as re-enacted by chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the laws of nineteen hundred and one, is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 407. The board of aldermen is authorized by ordinance to regulate and restrict the height of buildings to be hereafter erected in the city. When any ordinance on that subject is introduced, the board of aldermen shall provide for public hearings in reference thereto, before it or before appropriate committees; and no ordinance restricting the height of buildings shall be passed unless it is approved beforehand by the board of estimate and apportionment by a resolution or vote of a majority of the members of such board entered on its minutes or record, and unless it shall be passed by a majority of all the members elected to the board of aldermen, the vote being taken by ayes and noes. *The said board subject to the approval of the board of estimate and apportionment as herein before provided shall have power to divide the city into zones or districts and to fix the height of buildings the number of stories and the percentage of the lot area that may be occupied in such zones or districts. The heights of buildings, the number of stories and the percentage of lot area which may be occupied may be different in the different zones or districts which may be established. Such zones or districts and the height of buildings, number of stories and percentage of lot area which may be occupied in such zones or districts when fixed by said board shall remain unchanged for a period of twenty years, but in no zone or district shall the height of buildings, the number of stories or the percentage of the lot area that may be occupied be greater than is prescribed by law at the time the said board shall divide the city into such zones or districts.*

The building code shall be in force in the City of New York on the first day of January, 1902, and all then existing provisions of law fixing the penalties for violation of said code, and all then existing laws affecting or relating to the construction, alteration or removal of buildings or other structures within the City of New York are hereby declared to be binding and in force in the City of New York, and shall continue to be so binding and in force except as the same may from time to time be revised, altered, amended or repealed as herein provided. No right or remedy of any character shall be lost or impaired or affected by reason of this chapter. This chapter shall not affect or impair any act done or right accruing, accrued or acquired or penalty, forfeiture or punishment incurred prior to the time when this act takes effect or by virtue of any law repealed or modified by this chapter, but the same may be asserted, enforced, prosecuted, or inflicted as fully and to the same extent as if this act had not been passed, or said law had not been repealed or modified. The board of aldermen shall have power from time to time to amend said building code and said laws to provide therein for all matters concerning, affecting or relating to the construction, alteration or removal of buildings or structures erected or to be erected in the City of New York, and for the purpose of preparing or amending said code, to appoint and employ a commission of experts. The said building code, which is in force May

first, 1904, shall constitute a chapter of the code of ordinances of The City of New York.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter in relation to organization, administration, authorities, duties and powers of the Department of Health.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section eleven hundred and sixty-seven of the Greater New York Charter, as re-enacted by Chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the laws of 1901, is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 1167. The head of the department of health shall be called the board of health. Said board shall consist of one commissioner to be called the commissioner of health, the police commissioner, [and] the health officer of the port [.], *and the Commissioner of the Tenement House Department who shall have a vote in all matters pertaining to the Tenement House Department.* The commissioner of health shall be appointed by the mayor, shall hold office as provided in chapter four of this act, and shall be the president of the board of health. The commissioner of health shall be the executive officer of the health department. [The terms of office of the three officers called commissioners of health, except the president of the board of health, appointed pursuant to the provisions of the Greater New York Charter, shall cease and determine on the first day of January, nineteen hundred and two, and the said president shall thereupon become commissioner of health.]

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter by providing for the prevention of room overcrowding in two-family houses.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Title six of chapter nineteen of the Greater New York Charter, as re-enacted by chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the laws of nineteen hundred and one, is hereby amended by adding a new section to be known as section twelve hundred and ninety-nine-b and to read as follows:

Section 1299b. Overcrowding—No apartment in any two-family house shall be so overcrowded that there shall be afforded less than six hundred cubic feet of air to each adult and three hundred cubic feet of air to each child under twelve years of age occupying such apartment, but no portion of any closet, bathroom or toilet shall be included in computing the cubic air space of any apartment.

2. Any persons violating or aiding or abetting in violating this provision shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and shall, upon conviction in a magistrate's court, be punished by a fine not exceeding twenty-five dollars.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to scuttles, bulkheads, ladders and stairs.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 32 of chapter 99 of the laws of 1909, entitled "An Act in relation to tenement houses, constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Section 32. Scuttles, bulkheads, ladders and stairs.—Every tenement house shall have in the roof a bulkhead or a scuttle which, in tenement houses erected prior to April tenth, nineteen hundred and one, shall be not less than twenty-one inches by twenty-eight inches, and in tenement houses erected after that date, not less in size than two feet by thirty inches. All scuttles shall be covered on the outside with metal and shall be provided with stairs or stationary ladders leading thereto and easily accessible to all tenants of the building and kept free from incumbrance, and all scuttles and ladders shall be kept so as to be ready for use at all times. No scuttle shall be located in a room, but all scuttles shall be located in the ceiling of the public hall on the top floor, and access through the scuttle to the roof shall be direct and uninterrupted. If located in a closet, said closet shall open from the public hall and shall not be used as a water-closet compartment or bathroom, and the door to such closet shall be permanently removed, or shall be fastened only by movable bolts or hooks without keylocks. When deemed necessary by the department charged with the enforcement of this chapter, scuttles shall be hinged so as to readily open. Every bulkhead in a tenement house shall have stairs with a guide or hand-rail leading to the roof, and such stairs shall be kept free from incumbrance at all times. No scuttle and no bulkhead door shall at any time be locked with a key, but either may be fastened on the inside

by movable bolts or hooks. All key-locks on scuttles and on bulkhead doors shall be removed. No stairs leading to the roof in any tenement house shall be removed and replaced with a ladder. Every bulkhead hereafter constructed in a now-existing tenement house shall be constructed as provided in section seventeen of this chapter, except that where the stairs and stair halls in such tenement house are not now of fire-proof material such bulkhead may be of wood covered with metal. Any tenement house hereafter increased in height by placing thereon an additional story or stories or a part of a story, shall be provided with a bulkhead in the roof [.], *but in three-family three-story houses a scuttle must be provided twenty-four by thirty-six inches with scuttle cover provided with a counter-balance weight.*

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to overcrowding.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section III of chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An Act in relation to tenement houses, constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section III. Overcrowding. No [room] apartment in any tenement house shall be so overcrowded that there shall be afforded less than [four] six hundred cubic feet of air to each adult; and [two] three hundred cubic feet of air to each child under twelve years of age occupying such [room.] apartment, *but no portion of any closet, bathroom or toilet shall be included in computing the cubic air space of any apartment. The lessee of any apartment violating or aiding or abetting in violating this provision shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and shall upon conviction in a magistrate's court be punished by a fine not exceeding twenty-five dollars. The department charged with the enforcement of this law shall cause the cubical contents of all apartments in tenement houses, exclusive of any portion of any closet, bathroom or toilet to be ascertained, and shall post in every such apartment a placard printed in such language or languages as said department shall deem necessary, stating the number of adults or minors or adults and minors that may legally occupy such apartment.*

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Public Halls.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 66 of chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An Act in relation to tenement houses, constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 66. Public Halls—In every tenement house hereafter erected, which is occupied or arranged to be occupied by more than two families on one floor or which exceeds four stories and cellar in height, every public hall shall have at least one window opening directly upon the street or upon a yard or court. Either such window shall be at the end of said hall, with the plans of the window at right angle to the axis of said hall or there shall be at least one window opening directly upon the street or upon a yard or court in every twenty feet in length or fraction thereof of said hall; but this provision for one window in every twenty feet of hallway shall not apply to that portion of the entrance hall between the entrance and the first flight of stairs, provided that the entrance door contains not less than five square feet of glazed surface. In every public hall in such tenement house recesses or returns the length of which does not exceed twice their width will be permitted without an additional window. But wherever the length of such recess or return exceeds twice its width the above provisions in reference to one window in every twenty feet of hallway shall be applied. Any part of a hall which is shut off from any other part of said hall by a door or doors shall be deemed a separate hall within the meaning of this section. In every tenement house hereafter erected where the public hall is not provided with a window opening directly to the outer air as above provided there shall be a stair well not less than twelve inches wide extending from the entrance floor to the roof, and all doors leading from such public halls shall be provided with translucent glass panels of an area of not less than five square feet for each door, and also with fixed transoms of translucent glass over each door [.], *except that in buildings not exceeding three stories in height with not more than two families on a floor the stair-well shall not be less than ten inches wide extending from the entrance floor to the roof.*

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Size of Rooms.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 64 of Chapter ninety-nine of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An act in relation to tenement houses, constituting chapter 61 of the Consolidated Laws" is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Section 64. Rooms, size of—In every tenement house hereafter erected all rooms, except water-closet compartments and bathrooms, shall be of the following minimum sizes; in each compartment there shall be at least one room containing not less than [one hundred and twenty] *one hundred and fifty* square feet of floor area and each other room shall contain at least [seventy] *ninety* square feet of floor area. Each room shall be in every part not less than nine feet high from the finished floor to the finished ceiling, provided that an attic room need be nine feet high in but one-half its area.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Three-story Tenements.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 16 of Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An act in relation to tenement houses, constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws" is hereby amended by adding thereto a new sub-division to be known as sub-division 5, and to read as follows:

5. *In three-story tenement houses where the bulkhead to roof is omitted, fire-escapes, balconies and connecting ladders shall be placed on rear of said building in accordance with such regulations as may be adopted by said Tenement House Department.*

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Room Overcrowding.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Chapter ninety-nine of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An Act in relation to tenement houses, constituting Chapter 61 of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended by adding thereto a new section to be known as section one hundred and twelve, and to read as follows:

Section 112. Lodgers—No lessee of any apartment in any tenement house shall take a lodger without first notifying the owner or responsible agent of the tenement house in writing and such owner or responsible agent shall, upon receiving any such notice, immediately report the same to the tenement house department. Every such lessee shall before taking any lodger secure a license permitting such taking of lodger, from the tenement house department.

2. No such license shall be granted by the tenement house department until it shall have made investigation of the apartment in which the applicant for taking such lodger lives, and of the occupancy thereof, and is satisfied that all the requirements of the tenement house law and all other laws applying thereto have been complied with.

3. For the purposes of this section a lodger shall be construed to mean any person who is harbored, received or lodged for hire.

4. Any person violating or aiding or abetting in violating either of these provisions shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and shall upon conviction in a magistrate's court be punished by a fine not exceeding twenty-five dollars.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Stairs and Halls.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 18 of Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909, entitled "An act in relation to tenement houses constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws" is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Section 18. Stairs and Public Halls—Every tenement house hereafter erected shall have at least one flight of stairs extending from the entrance floor to the roof, and the stairs and public halls therein shall each be at least three feet wide in the clear [..], *excepting in tenements not exceeding three stories and cellar in height and arranged to be occupied by not more than one family on each floor or more than three families in all, in lieu of stairs there may be an iron stair ladder to the roof placed at an angle of 60 degrees and constructed as required by section 32 of the Tenement House Law, and the width of the stairs may be two feet and nine inches.*

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Rooms, Lighting and Ventilation.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 73, Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909, entitled "An act in relation to Tenement Houses constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended by the addition of a sub-division to follow sub-division 4 to be known as sub-division 5, and to read as follows:

5. *If in the judgment of the department charged with the enforcement of this chapter the minimum requirement of window space and other means of ventilation required by this section are not sufficient to make the room sanitary and habitable, said department shall be empowered upon a certificate being filed verified by two medical inspectors certifying to the above facts to vacate said apartment or part thereof in the manner prescribed in section one hundred and twenty-six of this law.*

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to the Height of Tenements.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1 of Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An act in relation to tenement houses constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws" is hereby amended by the addition thereto of a new section to be known as Section 51a, as follows:

Section 51a—*No tenement house hereafter erected in The City of New York except in the Borough of Manhattan, south of the south side of 181st street shall exceed four stories in height, except that for every fifteen percentum of the lot area left unoccupied less than the maximum percentage of occupancy legally permissible at the time this act takes effect, an additional story shall be permitted, and a tenement house may be five stories high without being of fireproof construction if it occupy fifteen percentum less of the lot area than is legally permissible at the time this act takes effect.*

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Light and Vent Shafts in Existing Buildings.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 75 of Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An act in relation to tenement houses constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws" is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 75. Light and Vent Shafts in existing buildings—Any shaft used or intended to be used to light or ventilate rooms used or intended to be used for living purposes, and which may be hereafter placed in a tenement house, erected prior to April tenth, nineteen hundred and one, shall not be less in area than twenty-five square feet nor less than four feet in width in any part, and such shaft shall under no circumstances be roofed or covered over at the top with a roof or skylight; every such shaft shall be provided at the bottom with a horizontal intake or duct, of a size not less than four square feet, and communicating directly with the street or yard, and such duct shall be so arranged as to be easily cleaned out.

Nothing in this section shall be construed to prohibit windows being placed in said vent shaft where same are used to afford additional light to halls, provided that such windows are stationary and frames shall be fireproof and glazed with wire glass.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Fireproof Tenements.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 15 of Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An Act in relation to tenement houses constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 15. Fireproof Tenements, where required.—Every tenement house hereafter erected exceeding [six] four stories or parts of stories or fifty feet in height above the curb level, shall be a fireproof tenement house, nor shall any tenement house be altered so as to exceed such height without being made a fireproof tenement house. A cellar the ceiling of which does not extend more than two feet above the curb level is not a story within the meaning of this section. Where, however, a tenement house hereafter erected is located on a street of which the grade is more than four feet in one

hundred feet, a cellar or basement, the ceiling of which does not extend more than six inches above the highest point of the curb level, is not to be deemed a story within the meaning of this section, provided, however, that no part of such cellar or basement is occupied or arranged to be occupied for living purposes except by the janitor of such building and his family, and provided also that such cellar or basement is the lowest story of such building.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law relating to Inner Courts.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 58 of Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909, entitled "An act in relation to tenement houses, constituting chapter 61 of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 58. Inner Courts 1. Where one side of an inner court is situated on the lot line, the width of the said court measured from the lot line to the opposite wall of the building, for tenement houses sixty feet in height shall not be less than twelve feet in any part, and its other horizontal dimension shall not be less than twenty-four feet in any part; and for every twelve feet of increase or fraction thereof in the height of the said building, each width shall be increased six inches throughout the entire height of said court, and the other horizontal dimension shall be increased one foot throughout the entire height of said court; and for every twelve feet of decrease in the height of the said building below sixty feet, such width may be decreased six inches, and the other horizontal dimension may be decreased one foot. Except that in tenement houses hereafter erected not exceeding four stories and cellar in height and which also are not occupied or arranged to be occupied by more than [eight] *nine* families in all, or by more than two families on any floor, and in which also each apartment extends through from the street to the yard, and which also do not occupy more than seventy-two per centum of the lot, in the case of an interior lot, the width of an inner court situated on the lot line to the opposite wall of the building shall not be less than eight feet in any part, and its other horizontal dimension shall not be less than fourteen feet in any part. Except also that in such tenement houses which do not exceed three stories and cellar in height, and which also are not occupied by more than six families in all, or by more than two families on any floor, a portion of such inner court may be occupied by a bathroom extension, provided that such extension has no window facing an opposite building, and that it does not occupy a portion of such court greater than four and one-half feet in width, or seven feet in length, and that between such extension and the lot line the court is never less than three and one-half feet in width. In such last-named tenement houses which do not occupy more than sixty-five per centum of the lot, in the case of an interior lot, where an inner court for its entire length immediately adjoins an existing inner court of equal or greater size in an adjoining building or adjoins such a court in an adjoining building actually in course of construction at the same time, the width of such inner court measured from the lot line to the opposite wall of the building shall be not less than four feet in any part, and not less than eight feet from wall to wall, and its other horizontal dimension shall be not less than twelve and one-half feet.

2. Where an inner court is not situated upon the lot line, but is inclosed on all four sides, the least horizontal dimension of the said court for tenement houses sixty feet in height shall not be less than twenty-four feet and for every twelve feet of increase or fraction thereof in the height of the said building, the said court shall be increased one foot in each horizontal dimension, throughout the entire height of said court; and for every twelve feet of decrease in the heights of the said building below sixty feet, the horizontal dimensions of the said court may be decreased on foot in each direction. Except that in tenement houses hereafter erected not exceeding four stories and cellar in height and which are not occupied or arranged to be occupied by more than [eight] *nine* families in all, or by more than two families on any floor, and in which also each apartment extends through from the street to the yard, and which also do not occupy more than seventy-two per centum of the lot in the case of an interior lot, the least horizontal dimension of an inner court not situated on the lot line, but inclosed on all four sides, shall not be less than fourteen feet. Except also that in such tenement houses which do not exceed three stories and cellar in height and which also are not occupied, or arranged to be occupied, by more than six families in all, or by more than two families on any floor, and which do not occupy more than sixty-five per centum of the lot, in the case of an interior lot, the width of such inner court shall not be less than eight feet in any part, and its other horizontal dimension shall not be less than twelve and one-half feet. In inner courts which are not less than ten feet wide in any part, offsets and recesses will be permitted,

but where the depth of such offset or recess is less than the minimum width prescribed, then the width of said offset or recess may be equal to but not less than its depth, provided that such width is never less than four feet in the clear. And no window except windows of watercloset compartments, bathrooms or halls shall open upon any offset or recess less than six feet in width.

3. Every inner court shall be provided with one or more horizontal intakes at the bottom. Such intakes shall always communicate directly with the street or yard, and shall consist of a passageway not less than three feet wide and seven feet high, which shall be left open, or if not open there shall always be provided in said passageway open grilles or transoms of a size not less than five square feet each, and such open grilles or transoms shall never be covered over by glass or in any other way. There shall be at least two such grilles or transoms in each such passageway, one at the inner court and the other at the street or yard, as the case may be.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law in relation to Fireproof Tenements. The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 15 of Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An act in relation to tenement houses constituting chapter sixty-two of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 15. Fireproof Tenements, when required—Every tenement house hereafter erected exceeding [six] *four* stories or parts of stories *or fifty feet* in height above the curb level, shall be a fireproof tenement house, nor shall any tenement house be altered so as to exceed such height without being made a fireproof tenement house. A cellar the ceiling of which does not extend more than two feet above the curb level is not a story within the meaning of this section. Where, however, a tenement house hereafter erected is located on a street of which the grade is more than four feet to one hundred feet, a cellar or basement, the ceiling of which does not extend more than six inches above the highest point of the curb level, is not to be deemed a story within the meaning of this section, provided, however, that no part of such cellar or basement is occupied or arranged to be occupied for living purposes except by the janitor of such building and his family, and provided also that such cellar or basement is the lowest story of such building.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter in relation to Inspection of Tenement Houses.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section thirteen hundred and forty-one of the Greater New York Charter, as re-enacted by chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the Law of 1901, as amended by chapter 439 of the Laws of 1903, is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 1341a. Infected and Uninhabitable Houses to be Vacated by Department—[Whenever it shall be certified by an inspector or officer of the department that a tenement house, or any part thereof, is infected with contagious disease, or that it is unfit for human habitation or dangerous to life or health by reason of want of repair, or of defects in the drainage, plumbing, ventilation, or the construction of the same or by reason of the existence on the premises of a nuisance likely to cause sickness among the occupants of said house, the department may issue an order requiring all persons therein to vacate such house, or part thereof, within not less than twenty-four hours, nor more than ten days for the reasons to be mentioned in said order.] *The tenement house department of The City of New York shall at such times and in such manner as may to it seem best cause an inspection and examination to be made of all tenement houses, in The City of New York, and wherever it shall be found that any such tenement house or part thereof is infected with contagious disease or that it is unfit for human habitation or occupancy or dangerous to life or health by reason of want of repair or of defects in the drainage, plumbing, lighting, ventilation, or the construction of the same, or by reason of the existence on the premises of a nuisance likely to cause sickness among the occupants of said house the department shall issue an order requiring all persons therein to vacate such house or part thereof, within not less than twenty-four hours nor more than ten days for the reasons to be mentioned in said order. This order may be served in the manner prescribed in the tenement house act.*

In case such order is not complied with within the time specified the department may cause said tenement house, or part thereof, to be vacated. The department

whenever it is satisfied that the danger from said house, or part thereof, has ceased to exist, or that it is fit for human habitation may revoke said order, or may extend the time within which to comply with the same.

2. *A staff of medical inspectors who are qualified physicians shall be assigned by the department of health to the tenement house department, which staff shall examine and report upon all cases of vacation of such insanitary tenements or part thereof in which there may be any contagious disease or which is unfit for human habitation, except in those vacating cases provided for by law.*

3. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed.

Section 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to provide for the creation of an Industrial Commission in Cities of Over One Million Inhabitants.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. The Mayor of any city with a population of over one million inhabitants, shall appoint a commission to be known as the industrial commission of said city. The said commission shall consist of three residents of the City. Two of the commissioners shall serve for a term of four years, and the third commissioner, who shall be the chairman of the commission, shall serve for the term of five years.

Section 2. For the purpose of making the appointments aforesaid, the said mayor shall call upon the presidents or other executive heads of the following interests, representing the employers and the employees: The central bodies of the labor organizations of the city; and associations representing the employers of the city, each of whom shall present a list of not less than five names for the consideration of the mayor. Notice in writing of the dates on which the appointments to said commission are proposed to be made shall be given by the mayor to each of the presidents or other executive heads of said organizations at least ten days prior thereto, and such list of names shall be so presented within three days after the receipt of such notice. Appointment of two members of said commission, may, in the discretion of the mayor, be made from such list or lists, and the third commissioner shall not belong to either an association of employers or employees; but, not more than two of said commissioners shall belong to the political party which at the preceding general election cast the greatest number of votes for governor of the state, nor to the political party which shall have cast the next greatest number of votes for governor of the state.

Section 3. The duties of said commission shall be (a) to investigate labor conditions in the city, and wages paid to both skilled and unskilled laborers of every class, whether represented by an association or organization of labor or not; and the said commission shall have full power to make such examinations and investigations. Upon the written petition of any organization of labor, or association of employers, or of a class representing trades not connected or associated with any labor organization, it shall be the duty of the said commission to investigate all matters set forth in the said petition, either by conferences with all the parties directly concerned or by giving full publicity to the facts ascertained, or both, in the discretion of the commission; (b) to investigate all differences and disputes that may arise when strikes and lockouts are threatened or after they occur, and to use all proper efforts to prevent or to terminate such strikes or lockouts, and it shall give the widest publicity to the result of its conferences and examinations, upon the request of either party to the dispute or of any other party who shall be directly interested or affected by the proceeding.

Section 4. The said commission shall have power to administer oaths, and to issue subpoenas for the production of books and papers, and for the attendance of witnesses to the same extent as the courts of record or the judges thereof in this state possess. The commission may make and enforce rules for its government and the transaction of its business, and shall hear and examine such witnesses as may be brought before them, and take such other proof as may be offered or found necessary. After the matter has been fully heard, the said commission, or a majority thereof, shall within ten days, and as speedily as possible, if the situation is critical or urgent, render a decision in writing signed by it, giving such details that will clearly show the nature of the decision and the points disposed of. Examinations or investigations ordered by the commission may be held and taken before any one of its members, if so directed, but the proceedings or decision of any one member of the commission shall not be deemed conclusive until approved by the commission or a majority thereof. Each commissioner shall have power to administer oaths, and all subpoenas shall be signed by the secretary of the commission, and may be served by any person

of full age, authorized by the commission to serve the same. Said commission shall make an annual report to the mayor, which shall include such facts and statements that will disclose the actual work of the commission, with such recommendations that may seem to it conducive to the harmonizing of the relations between employers and employees.

Section 5. Each member of the commission shall receive a salary of dollars per year, and it shall have the power to rent offices, employ a secretary and such other assistants as it shall deem necessary for the proper conduct of its work, and the appropriation therefor shall be made by those charged by law with the duty of making appropriations for the support of the city government.

Section 6. Nothing in this act contained shall in any way be construed to modify, change or repeal the powers and jurisdiction of the bureau of mediation and arbitration in the state department of labor, as provided for by article ten of the general labor law.

Section 7. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Labor Law in relation to a Deputy Commissioner for New York City.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1—Section 41 of chapter 26 of the Laws of 1909, entitled "An Act relating to labor, constituting chapter 31 of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 41. Deputy Commissioners—The commissioner of labor shall forthwith upon entering upon the duties of his office, appoint, and may at pleasure remove, two deputy commissioners of labor, who shall receive such annual salaries, not to exceed three thousand dollars each, as may be appropriated therefore. The powers herein-after conferred upon the first and second deputy commissioners shall not include the appointment of officers, clerks or other employees in any of the bureaus of the department of labor. *He shall also appoint a deputy commissioner, who shall be permanently stationed in New York City, and who shall be paid a salary not to exceed*

dollars, whose duty it shall be to supervise the administration of the general labor law in New York City, subject to the authority and direction of the commissioner of labor.

Section 2. This Act shall take effect July 1, 1911.

AN ACT to amend the Labor Law in relation to the size of rooms.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 85 of chapter 26 of the Laws of 1909, entitled "An Act relating to labor, constituting chapter 31 of the Consolidated Laws," is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 85. Size of Rooms—No more employees shall be required or permitted to work in a room in a factory between the hours of six o'clock in the morning and six o'clock in the evening, than will allow to each of such employees not less than [two hundred and fifty] *five hundred* cubic feet of air space; and, unless by a written permit of the commissioner of labor, not less than [four hundred] *six hundred* cubic feet for each employee, so employed between the hours of six o'clock in the evening and six o'clock in the morning, provided such room is lighted by electricity at all times during such hours, while persons are employed therein.

Section 2. This Act shall take effect July 1, 1911.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter by providing for a difference in the rate of taxation on the value of land wholly unimproved, and the rate on the difference between the value of the land with its improvements and the value of the land wholly unimproved.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section two hundred and forty-nine of the Greater New York Charter, as re-enacted by chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the Laws of 1901, is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 249. The aggregate amount estimated by the Board of Aldermen and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in the annual Budget, shall be certified by the Comptroller to the Board of Aldermen; and it shall be the duty of the said Board of Aldermen, and they are hereby empowered and directed annually to cause to be raised, according to law, and collected by tax upon the estates, real and personal, subject to taxation within The City of New York, the amount so certified as aforesaid. *The said Board of Aldermen shall, for the year . . . , in fixing the rate of taxation on the real*

estate of The City of New York, so apportion the rate that the rate on personal property and on the difference between the value of real estate, with its improvements, and the value of real estate wholly unimproved, assessed as provided for in section eight hundred and eighty-nine of the Greater New York Charter, as amended by section one of chapter four hundred and fifty-four of the laws of nineteen hundred and three, shall be ninety per cent. of the rate on the value of real estate wholly unimproved. Every year subsequent to . . . , the rate on personal property and the difference between the value of real estate with its improvements, and the value of real estate wholly unimproved, shall be still further reduced 10 per cent. of the rate on the value of real estate wholly unimproved, until the rate on personal property and on the difference between the value of real estate with its improvements, and the value of real estate wholly unimproved, shall be fifty per centum of the rate on the value of real estate wholly unimproved; and thereafter the Board of Aldermen shall so apportion the rate of taxation that the rate on personal property and on the difference between the value of real estate with its improvements and the value of real estate wholly unimproved, shall be fifty per centum of the rate on the value of real estate wholly unimproved.

Section 2. This Act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Greater New York Charter by providing a separate statement of the difference in the value of land with its improvements and the value of land wholly unimproved in assessments of real estate.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Sections 889 and 892 of the Greater New York Charter as enacted by chapter 466 of the Laws of 1901, are hereby amended to read as follows:

Sec. 889. It shall be the duty of the Deputy Tax Commissioners, under the direction of the Board of Taxes and Assessments, to assess all the taxable property in the several districts that may be assigned to them for that purpose by said Board, and they shall furnish to said Board, under oath, a detailed statement of all such property, showing that said Deputies have personally examined each and every house, building, lot, pier or other assessable property, giving the street, lot, ward, town and map number of such real estate embraced within the said districts, together with the name of the owner or occupant, if known; also the sum for which, in their judgment, each separately assessed parcel of real estate under ordinary circumstances would sell if it were wholly unimproved; and separately stated the sum for which, under ordinary circumstances, the same parcel of real estate would sell, with the improvements, if any, thereon; and separately stating the sum, showing the difference between the sum for which, in their judgment, each separately assessed parcel of real estate, under ordinary circumstances, would sell if it were wholly unimproved, and the sum for which, under ordinary circumstances, the same parcel of real estate would sell with improvements, if any, thereon; with such other information, in detail, relative to personal property or otherwise, as the said Board may from time to time require. Such deputies shall commence to assess real and personal real estate on the first Tuesday of September in each and every year.

Sec. 892. There shall be kept in the several offices established by the Department of Taxes and Assessments, books to be called "The Annual Record of the Assessed Valuation of Real and Personal Estate of the Borough of . . . , " in which shall be entered in detail the assessed valuation of such property within the limits of the several Boroughs within The City of New York, as established by this Act. In such books the assessed value of real estate shall be set down in [two] three columns; in the first column shall be given opposite each separately assessed parcel of real estate the sum for which such parcel, under ordinary circumstances, would sell if wholly unimproved; in the second column shall be set down the sum for which the said parcel, under ordinary circumstances, would sell with the improvements, if any, thereon; and in the third column the difference between the sum for which such parcel, under ordinary circumstances, would sell if wholly unimproved, and the sum for which the said parcel, under ordinary circumstances, would sell with the improvements, if any, thereon. The said books shall be open for public inspection, examination and correction from the second Monday in January until the 1st day of April in each year; but on the said last mentioned day the same shall be closed to enable the Board of Taxes and Assessments to prepare assessment rolls of the several boroughs for delivery to the Board of Aldermen. The said Board, previous to and during the time the said books are open as aforesaid, for inspection, shall advertise the fact in the CITY RECORD and in such other newspaper or newspapers published in the several Boroughs created by this Act as may be authorized by the Board of City Record.

Section 2. This Act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT to amend the Tenement House Law regarding Outer Courts.

The People of the State of New York represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:

Section 1. Section 57 of Chapter 99 of the Laws of 1909 entitled "An Act in relation to tenement houses constituting chapter sixty-one of the Consolidated Laws" is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 57. 1.—Where one side of an outer court is situated on the lot line, the width of the said court, measured from the lot line to the opposite wall of the building, for tenement houses sixty feet in height shall not be less than six feet in any part; and for every twelve feet of increase or fraction thereof in height of the said building, such width shall be increased six inches throughout the entire height of said court; and for every twelve feet of decrease in the height of the said building below sixty feet, such width may be decreased six inches. Whenever an outer court exceeds sixty-five feet in length and does not extend from the street to the yard, the entire court shall be increased in width one foot for every additional thirty feet or fraction thereof in excess of sixty-five feet. Except that in tenement houses hereafter erected not exceeding four stories and cellar in height and which also are not occupied or arranged to be occupied by more than [eight] *nine* families in all, or by more than two families on any floor, and in which also each apartments extends through from the street to the yard, the width of an outer court situated on the lot line shall not be less than four feet in any part provided that the length of such outer court does not exceed thirty-six feet.

2. Where an outer court is situated between wings or part of the same building, or between different buildings on the same lot, the width of the said court, measured from wall to wall, for tenement houses sixty feet in height shall not be less than twelve feet in any part; and for every twelve feet of increase or fraction thereof in the height of the said building, such width shall be increased one foot throughout the entire height of said court; and for every twelve feet of decrease in the height of the said buildings below sixty feet, such width of the said court may be decreased one foot. Wherever an outer court exceeds sixty-five feet in length, the entire court shall be increased in width two feet for every additional thirty feet or fraction thereof in excess of sixty-five feet. Except that in tenement houses hereafter erected not exceeding four stories and cellar in height and which also are not occupied or arranged to be occupied by more than [eight] *nine* families in all, or by more than two families on any floor, and in which also each apartment extends through from the street to the yard, the width of an outer court situated between wings or parts of the same building, or between different buildings on the same lot, measured from wall to wall, shall be not less than eight feet in any part provided that the length of said outer court does not exceed thirty-six feet.

3. Wherever an outer court changes its initial horizontal direction, or wherever any part of such court extends in a direction so as not to receive direct light from the street or yard, the length of such portion of said court shall never exceed the width of said portion; such length to be measured from the point at which the change of direction commences. Wherever an outer court is less in depth than the minimum width prescribed by this article, then its width may be equal to, but not less than its depth, provided that such width is never less than four feet in the clear. This exception shall also apply to each offset or recess in outer courts. And no window except windows of water-closet compartments, bathrooms or halls shall open upon any offset or recess less than six feet in width.

Sec. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON PARKS AND PLAY-
GROUNDS, SCHOOLS AND RECREATION CENTRES OF THE NEW
YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION, PRE-
PARED BY ALDERMAN JAMES E. CAMPBELL, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee submit the following recommendations based upon the evidence and suggestions submitted at the hearings of the Committee and upon investigations made by the members of the Committee. The recommendations of the Committee naturally divide themselves into two parts:

I. Recommendations regarding parks and playgrounds.

II. Recommendations regarding schools and recreation centres.

The Committee would, however, first make two general recommendations with regard to the City's policy of acquisition of land for public purposes.

First: The City should acquire land in contemplation of future public needs as early as possible. The table submitted as an appendix to this report shows that in practically every case the City has saved money by purchasing land early. Even including the cost of buildings on the land condemnation costs and losses from taxes and interest charges, the assessed value of the sites of hundreds of public buildings is several hundred per cent. greater now than the total amount paid. By such early acquisition of land the City gets the entire increase in the value of the land, and it is only on this land owned by the City that it secures this increment of land value. Of 943 sites studied, 19 parcels, or one in every 27, had increased over 2,000 per cent.

Second: The City may sometimes need to sell land that is very valuable, but should never sell land that is cheap, and should use the proceeds of sales of very valuable land to acquire cheap land. The history of the acquisition of land by New York City shows, unfortunately, a "piecemeal" purchase of land, entirely out of proportion to the increasing needs of the community. Of 513 school sites in New York City, in 229 cases, nearly one-half, less than the entire site was purchased at one time. In 17 cases the total amount of land required was secured at five different times, extending over a series of years. Two typical instances of the cost of this delay in acquiring land are the site of School 21, 33 Greenwich st., where the City paid in 1849, \$0.79 per square foot, and in 1905, 56 years later, paid \$13.37 per square foot. In the same way land was purchased by the City for School 34, Norman, Eckford and Oakland sts., Brooklyn, in 1867, for \$0.23, while it paid in 1906, or 30 years later, \$7.16 per square foot, or thirty-one times as much.

I. RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING PARKS AND PLAYGROUNDS AND STANDARD OF PARKS
AND PLAYGROUNDS.

Officials of the Department of Parks have appeared before the Committee in reference to the Parks and Playgrounds situated in New York City. Mr. Howard Bradstreet, Superintendent of Recreation in Manhattan and Richmond, differentiated classes of Parks as follows:

1. Excursion Parks, e. g., Van Cortlandt.
2. Landscape Parks, e. g., Central, Riverside.
3. Ornamental Parks, e. g., Madison Square.
4. Athletic Fields, e. g., Jasper Oval.
5. Playgrounds, e. g., Hamilton Fish.

The Committee, in making their report, have adopted this general suggestion, but realize that it is necessary to recognize the economic limitations of providing excursion parks, and even larger parks, in certain sections of the City where land is enormously expensive. They also appreciate the necessity of establishing a certain standard of area, that is, a certain number of square feet, as a minimum amount of playground which should be provided for every child. Thirty (30) square feet has been suggested as the minimum, although eighty (80) square feet is a more reasonable allowance. An equally important point, however, has been emphasized before the Committee, that this park area must be accessible to the children in the neighborhood, since few children can go more than half a mile, and usually not more than a quarter of a mile, to a playground. The existence of large parks, such as Central Park, Crotona and Van Cortlandt Parks, and The Bronx Park in The Bronx, and Prospect Park in Brooklyn, while swelling the total park area of the City, is of little value in the problem of securing playgrounds for children, since a relatively small number of the entire City's population can live within a distance of one-quarter to one-half mile of such parks, which, as has been suggested to the Committee, are really excursion parks. It is impossible to determine the total area and playground area that will be required in certain districts if they are permitted to grow up in the same haphazard way as have most of the

boroughs of New York City. The Committee have been impressed with the fact that in all of the outlying boroughs of the City there is a very inadequate provision of parks and playgrounds when we exclude the total acreage of the enormous excursion parks, which, as above noted, are not available for play purposes to the children of the neighborhood. So long as it is permissible to erect four and five-story tenements in outlying districts, where small two-family houses, or at most three-story tenements, should be permitted, it will be difficult for the City to determine the total park area required.

Suggestions Regarding New Parks and Playgrounds.

Third: Various suggestions have been made as to the methods of acquiring more parks and playgrounds. Until a comparatively few years ago the City paid for these out of the General Fund, but in 1907 a ruling was adopted by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment that any proposition for parks and playgrounds was not to be considered unless the cost was to be assessed upon the property benefited. The result of this action has been that, while for several years prior to 1907 nearly 100 acres of park area were acquired by the City every year, during 1908, following the adoption of this resolution by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, only 14 acres of parks were acquired by the City. It seems evident that a certain amount of park area should be acquired by the City, and if it is not paid for by local assessment some other arrangement should be found for paying therefor. It has been suggested before the Committee that part of the cost of parks should be assessed upon the property benefited, part upon the Borough in which located, and part upon the City. The Committee would call attention to the fact that during the past the City has purchased land at enormous prices for park purposes in Manhattan, paying in many instances at the rate of over \$1,000,000 per acre. It seems, therefore, manifestly improper and unjust that the City, having made all these provisions for the congested districts of the City, should refuse to make similar provisions in the sections of the City where land is cheap, and where wage earners may live comfortably and with a reasonable expenditure for rent.

The Committee therefore recommends that the City acquire land for parks and playgrounds in the outlying Boroughs, part of the cost thereof to be assessed upon the property benefited, part upon the Borough in which located, and part upon the City. They realize that providing a healthy working population in the Boroughs of Brooklyn, Queens, The Bronx and Richmond adds materially to the value of land to be used for commercial and business purposes in Manhattan, and there is no reason why this valuable land in Manhattan should not pay part of this cost for the City. A second suggestion made to the Committee is that the buildings should be demolished at the ends of congested blocks, and that the areas thus vacated should be improved by the City as parks or public places. The Committee, however, finds that the assessed land values alone of many of these blocks are as high as \$8 to \$20 per square foot, that is, the land alone in these blocks would cost from \$500,000 to \$1,200,000 per acre, aside from the cost of the buildings, which would probably be about 50 per cent. of this amount, and it seems to them that it is not feasible to attempt to make ideal conditions for the people living in the congested districts for which this has been particularly suggested, since it is not feasible or practical for many more years to have the City's working population in these sections, which will probably be improved for commercial and business purposes within a few years. It is true that many insanitary buildings should be demolished, and the City might rent these parcels of land for park and playground purposes, as also the lots now vacant.

The President of the Department of Taxes and Assessments has furnished the Committee with a list of vacant separately assessed parcels in each Borough, as follows:

	Number.	Percentage of Total Parcels.
Manhattan	9,061	9
Bronx	32,022	52
Brooklyn	48,046	24
Queens	73,899	64
Richmond	15,872	54
	178,900	35

Every parcel which contains any improvements, however slight, is counted as an improved parcel.

The suggestion was made to the Committee that legislation should be enacted requiring property owners to rent their land to the City for use as parks and playgrounds, and also that a transfer of property from one City department to another should be facilitated by prompt action of the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund.

Section 205 of the Charter provides in part:

"That the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund shall have power to assign to use for any public purpose any city property for whatsoever purpose originally acquired which may be found by the Department having control thereof to be no longer required for such purposes."

It is therefore evident that it is entirely feasible for the City to transfer parcels of land from one City department to another and it is quite within the scope of the City authorities to have such transfer made promptly. The Committee after consideration of the suggestion that the owners of property should be required to lease their property for park purposes, feel that this is not a feasible suggestion, but nevertheless suggest that the owners should be urged strongly to do so. The following table gives the Park acreage by Boroughs in the City in 1909:

Borough	Park Area in Acres (mapped).	Population per Acre of Park Areas.	Per cent. of Borough Area in Parks	Assessed Value of Parks Acquired.	Per cent. Capital Invested.
Manhattan	1,141	1,589	10.3	\$341,665,500 00	105.55
Brooklyn	1,178	1,266	2.4	46,500,900 00	31.50
The Bronx	3,943	83	15.2	27,951,000 00	86.83
Queens	1,101	211	1.5	1,771,000 00	10.07
Richmond	68	1,127	0.2	198,250 00	3.31
Entire City	7,731	572	3.7	\$418,085,650 00	94.98

The Committee also recommend that the Commission request the Board of Aldermen to pass an ordinance permitting the City to supervise as playgrounds land owned by private citizens. As indicated to the Committee by Mr. Bradstreet, there are many such parcels throughout the City, the use of which would be given without charge by the owners provided this was permitted, but under the present law the Park Department cannot pay any City employee who works on private ground.

Fourth: The Committee further recommend that adequate appropriation be made by the City for the maintenance of parks and playgrounds and for supervision of these where necessary. Although simple apparatus may be used without much supervision, nevertheless the work of the Supervisor is of great importance not only in directing the play of the children, but in training and forming their character; especially would the Committee urge that adequate park and playground provision, with supervision, be made for the outlying Boroughs of the City.

II. SCHOOLS AND RECREATION CENTERS.

Hon. Egerton L. Winthrop, President, and Superintendent W. H. Maxwell, and Miss Grace Strachan, all of the Board of Education, and other citizens interested in the school problem of the City, have appeared before your Committee in reference to the congestion of schools. The Department of Education has submitted figures showing that there were on October 31, 1910, 5,933 classes having from 41 to 50 pupils, and 2,643 classes from 51 to 60 pupils, and 257 having more than 60 pupils, while 10 had registers of over 81. As part of this report, is submitted a record of the average attendance of pupils per room in each of the schools in each school district, with a record of the number of school rooms having a registration of 60 to 70, and 70 to 80 pupils. Dr. Maxwell suggested that instead of providing so many new classes, it might be possible to divide the number of pupils in the school room and have an assistant teacher who would instruct the backward pupils and assist the teacher in correcting the written work of the pupils. Dr. Maxwell agreed, however, that it is best not to have a registration of over 40 to a class.

Miss Strachan, who appeared before the Committee, stated that she had in her districts a great many classes of over 50 and that she would rather have this condition than to have the children on the streets. She said that she was quite satisfied to have the registration of 40 pupils, although good work was being done in classes with 45 pupils registered.

First: The Committee recommend that sufficient appropriation be made to the

Department of Education to provide a teacher for every 40 pupils in the elementary schools on the basis of the registration and within one-third of a mile of the homes of pupils ten years of age and under, and three-quarters of a mile of the homes of pupils over ten years of age, and further, that a suitable school room be provided on the same basis for every 40 pupils registered.

Second: The Committee also recommend that no school building outside of Manhattan should be over three stories in height, nor have accommodations for more than 1500 pupils, and that not over 40 seats be provided in any room in any elementary school.

Third: The Committee recommend that adequate yard area be provided for every school purchased, and in case there is not sufficient playground area within accessible distance of the homes of pupils attending the school, that it be acquired in connection with the school site or in the vicinity, so as to provide an area of at least 60 square feet for every child of school age. The suggestion has been made to the Committee that indoor playgrounds are ample substitutes for outdoor playgrounds, but although this substitution may be necessary in the congested districts of the City, the Committee feel that the suggestion is not feasible for the Boroughs outside of Manhattan, since the basement playgrounds or playgrounds on the first floor are apt to be damp, ill-lighted and poorly ventilated.

Fourth: The Committee recommend that the Department of Education be requested to give more instruction in physiology and hygiene and to impress upon school children the physical effects of room overcrowding.

Fifth: The Committee recommend that training in gardening be given as part of the required school work for every pupil, since this would have an important influence in encouraging children, and, through them, their parents, to remove from the congested districts.

Sixth: The Committee have made a careful study of the provisions for Recreation Centres, and the opportunity for recreation in the various Boroughs outside of Manhattan and in New York City, and they find that while large provision has been made in most sections of Manhattan and some sections of Brooklyn, that little effort has been made comparatively to attract the population to outlying Boroughs by providing recreation centres and playgrounds, and therefore recommend that the Department of Education be urged to adopt the policy of attracting people to these newer sections of the City, as yet undeveloped, by providing these attractions in these sections.

Seventh: The Committee have not felt it within their jurisdiction to discuss the advantages of supervision of recreation by the Park Department and the Department of Education, or by the creation of a Recreation Department, as has been suggested. It is apparent, however, that it would be advantageous to have these educational activities under one department, and the Committee recommend that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment be requested to consider this matter in their study of the Department of Education.

Eighth: The Committee recommend that the Department of Education should take steps immediately to provide as ample accommodations for pupils, in the Boroughs outside of Manhattan as in that Borough, since they believe that every inducement and advantage offered by the City in congested sections should be provided in less densely populated sections of the City as a means of attracting people to those sections.

STATEMENT SUBMITTED TO THE COMMITTEE ON PARKS AND PLAY- GROUNDS, SCHOOLS AND RECREATION CENTERS.

A. STATEMENT BY WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS.

Dr. Maxwell took up the information requested by the Committee as follows:

1st. Number of rooms, by schools, now in use, which are not fit to be used for school purposes.

2nd. What amount in addition to the appropriations requested by the Department of Education for 1911, will be required for each borough to rent or provide otherwise, one room well lighted by natural light and suitable for school purposes for every 35 pupils, on the basis of the average attendance, and within one-third of a mile of the home of every pupil ten years of age or under, and within three-quarters of a mile of every pupil in the elementary schools over ten years of age?

What amount in addition to the appropriations requested by the Department of Education will be required to provide a teacher for every 35 pupils on the basis of the average attendance with the same provision as in (2) for proximity to the homes of the pupils?

What amount in addition to the appropriations requested by the Department of

Education will be required for 1911 to provide adequately for the City's High School needs?

He presented a report on this subject (as appended herewith) from Associate Superintendent Thomas D. O'Brien. In substance, an estimate was given that there are 67,368 pupils in classes having more than 40 to a class, and that to furnish an extra teacher for every 40 pupils would require 1,684 teachers, and, at \$900 each, the cost for their salaries would be \$1,515,000. The estimate did not present, however, the amount required to rent additional rooms for these pupils.

Dr. Maxwell stated, however, that he had a way which had not yet been approved by the Board of Education, and which he submitted entirely on his own responsibility for dealing with the problem of large classes. He suggested that an assistant teacher should be provided for all rooms in which there was an excess of pupils, who should assist the regular teacher in correcting all of the written work of this class, and who should also take care of backward pupils in these rooms by special instruction. This plan has been in operation in Batavia, N. Y., and has proven successful. New York City has a large number of substitute teachers who could be used in this way, and if the grade of assistant teachers were created, they might go into grade work in this way, at least in the classes which now have over 60, of which there are 145. The expense could be largely met out of the money now used for substitutes. The system has already been tried in case of 50 or 60 classes of backward pupils. It would be preferable probably for the present to use substitute teachers, since the Board of Education would not have money available now to pay \$500 per year for assistant teachers. The total cost would be \$72,500.

Dr. Maxwell stated that it would not be feasible to rent enough rooms for excess pupils that are fit for the purpose, since not a single building now rented is really fit for the purpose.

He suggested that the Committee recommend furnishing class rooms with movable furniture as is done in Germany, and in the Ethical Culture School, New York City. This would be especially important for the assistant teachers since it would enable them to take part of the large classes into a corner and teach without disturbing the others.

There should be at least five hours per day for all elementary schools, and this time should not be shortened. In case of the children of foreign parents, not only the children, but the parents, would get the benefit of the training.

Dr. Maxwell advocated using the first floor of school buildings for covered playgrounds.

He was asked what division of playground work there is between the Department of Parks and the Department of Education, and replied that there is no hard and fast division, but that there is lack of co-ordination between the Departments. Up to 1904, the Department of Education ran playgrounds in some of the small parks, and did so successfully when the Park Department took up the work.

When asked whether he would recommend a Department of Recreation, Dr. Maxwell replied, that in his judgment this is unnecessary, because the Department of Education can manage playgrounds efficiently and economically as they have the people to do the work and the machinery for doing it. Last summer the average daily attendance in the playgrounds in the City, under the control of the Board of Education, was over 119,000. There are more playgrounds of this sort needed, and have been asked for in the Budget for 1911.

The Secretary asked whether in Mr. Maxwell's judgment, in the outlying boroughs, there should be more than 1,500 pupils to a school, and he replied, that ordinarily this was a sufficiently large number.

Dr. Maxwell stated that in densely built up sections, large buildings must be erected. In other sections it would be unwise to do so. One question to be considered is how far parents will permit the children to go to attend school. In these days of automobiles, etc., they are afraid to have them go too far.

He instanced a case of a school building in Queens, where there are 11 stages carrying the children to the school and yet there are 12 vacant rooms.

B. STATEMENT BY MR. HOWARD BRADSTREET, SUPERINTENDENT OF RECREATION IN MANHATTAN AND RICHMOND.

There are a number of vacant areas in different sections of the City that could be put at the disposal of the Park Department for playgrounds if this were permitted; but under the law the Park Department could not pay any City employee to work on private grounds. It was suggested that the Commission should request the Board of Aldermen and Board of Estimate and Apportionment to pass an ordinance permitting the City to administer as playgrounds land owned by private citizens.

The Committee suggested that the City could for a nominal sum, such as \$1, lease areas available for playgrounds and have charge of the playgrounds on this basis.

He suggested that the City might remit taxes on vacant land for the time during which it was used for playground purposes or for such shorter length of time as would be equivalent to a fair rental, as is done in St. Louis.

Mr. Bradstreet differentiated classes of parks as—

1. Excursion parks, e. g., Van Cortlandt.
2. Landscape parks, e. g., Central, Riverside.
3. Ornamental parks, e. g., Madison Square.
4. Athletic fields, e. g., Jasper Oval.
5. Playgrounds, e. g., Hamilton Fish.

It was suggested that in Manhattan, where land is expensive and only limited areas are available, that soft balls should be used for baseballs and that diamonds between bases be 45 feet instead of 90 feet; also a law to legalize baseball playing on Sunday might be advocated by the Commission.

The baseball diamonds in Crotona Park had been cut up to prevent Sunday playing, while in most of the Boroughs baseball cannot be played on vacant lots without the permission of adjoining owners.

Mr. Bradstreet suggested that measures should be taken to facilitate the temporary transfer of property from one department of the City to another, and also that vacant property owned by the City might be utilized for playgrounds temporarily without requiring the formality now necessary for permanent transfer.

Mr. Elliott asked Mr. Bradstreet whether the separate play buildings were necessary and whether they were more advantageous if arranged so that children could use them in all sorts of weather for outdoor playgrounds and whether it would not be feasible to add a story to schools only three or four stories high, which could be used for playgrounds. Mr. Bradstreet replied it was feasible to use school buildings and that the system of New York City by which school buildings are used so continuously is as commendable as the South Metropolitan Park Board field house system in Chicago. There should be in connection with every school an adequate ground for recreation. All schools should have roof gardens, if possible. Alderman Hamilton suggested that the Commission recommend that in the future no school site should be purchased without providing adequate space for playgrounds.

Mr. Bradstreet stated that 30 square feet of playground for each child was regarded as the minimum, but that to secure this is not feasible in lower Manhattan; but that 80 feet is a more reasonable allowance.

Mr. Bradstreet suggested that a wide street or parkway with facilities for play in its centre, such as the Eastern parkway, or the Delancey boulevard, gives a desirable opportunity for play activity. He also stated that a small strip running from street to street between avenues in the centre of a block, or at the end of a block, making a checkerboard pattern of small playgrounds, would be the most desirable development in congested regions. Such a proceeding would be more advantageous than to remove the fences or interior buildings in the centre of a block, as it would be open to the safeguard of publicity, and would also promote a greater sociability instead of exclusiveness, which would result from the children of a given block playing within its limits.

CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

Mr. Clarence Arthur Perry, in his book, "Wider Use of the School Plant," gives the following summary of the work of continuation schools.

FRANCE.

The number of different classes held and the kinds of courses given in the "adult" evening schools of Paris at the opening of the term in October, 1909, are shown in the following table:

Course of Instruction.	Classes for	
	Men.	Women.
Elementary, 1st year.....	84	44
Elementary, 2d year.....	24	8
Commercial, 1st year.....	35	21
Commercial, 2d year.....	27	16
Advanced commercial.....	7	1
Freehand drawing.....	45	5
Mechanical drawing.....	34	..
Singing.....	22	12
Technical Course.....	13	..
Totals.....	291	107
Number of school buildings used.....	109	45

The subjects taught vary from ethical and civic instructions, applications of arithmetic to everyday life, history of France in modern times, geography of France and the Department of the Seine, included in the first year of the elementary course to more extended work in this elementary course in the second year.

In the commercial course, penmanship, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography for boys, stenography and typewriting for girls, and more advanced work in these courses in the subsequent years, while in the technical course workshop practice, technology and machine drawing are taught. The technical courses for apprentices are held from 5 to 7 p. m. and have been organized in several public schools in Paris.

In Munich, Germany, a city with over 500,000 inhabitants, all apprentices from fourteen to eighteen years of age are compelled to attend school for at least eight hours per week during 40 weeks of the year. There are over 8,000 of these lads, seven-eighths of them attend classes in which all the members belong to the same trade. These trades include barbers, bakers, builders, bookbinders and, in all, 39 different groups are represented in these "trade continuation schools." The instruction given is of three kinds, academic, drawing and practical. The keynote of the instruction is interesting the boys in their trade. Employers are obliged to allow their apprentices a certain amount of time each week during which they may attend the "continuation schools," and the balance of the required time is put in on the weekly half holidays. Attendance at schools is free to apprentices. Similar teaching is given in a number of the large German cities, namely, Magdeburg, Leipsig and Zittau.

Nottingham, England, also provides similar courses of instruction which covers subjects such as reading, writing and arithmetic, woodworking, wood carving for boys, reading, writing and sewing, sick nursing, management of children and cooking for girls.

The next higher grade, the "continuation" school, offers four distinct courses. (1) A preparatory course of two years in elementary subjects; (2) an industrial course covering three years' work in English, composition, technical drawing, experimental and workshop mathematics and drafting for building construction; (3) a commercial course of three years consisting of English, a modern language, commercial arithmetic, shorthand, bookkeeping, business correspondence and typewriting; (4) a domestic course comprising three years' training in housecraft, all kinds of needlework, dressmaking, millinery, laundry work, domestic hygiene and care of the baby. Besides those which are prescribed, the pupils in all but the preparatory course are allowed to take one of the following optional subjects: English history, commercial geography, duties of citizenship, singing, ambulance, nursing (first aid), physical culture, woodwork, wood carving and any subject included in the domestic course.

In Leeds special technical courses are given for persons engaged in the following trades:

1. Mechanical and electrical engineering.
2. Electrical industries.
3. Building trades.
4. Leather and boot trades.
5. Clothing trades.
6. Chemical and allied industries.
7. Mining.
8. Textile industries.
9. Printing.
10. Farriery.

London, Manchester and Halifax have as well similar "Continuation Schools."

Statement Showing the Number of Classes in Each Borough Having Specified Registers as of October 31, 1910.

Register.	Manhattan	The Bronx	Brooklyn	Queens	Richmond	Total
41-45	1,343	300	1,204	234	48	3,129
46-50	1,189	344	1,091	152	28	2,804
51-55	761	245	761	54	7	1,828
56-60	328	127	341	17	2	815
61-65	62	28	81	5	1	176
66-70	22	6	21	2	51
71-75	2	7	4	13
76-80	6	1	7
81-84	2	1	3	6
88-101	3	1	4

A study of the price paid by the City per square foot for land acquired for school sites at different periods and in different sections of Manhattan and Brooklyn—in which boroughs approximately three-fourths of the city's population is located—is most illuminating and illustrates the enormous cost of failure to secure land early before it has acquired capitalized congestion values.

Manhattan.

	Before 1850	1850-1900	1901-1908
Below Fourteenth St.....	\$0 98	\$4 62	\$13 00
Fourteenth to Fifty-third St.....	30	2 90	10 67
Fifty-third to One Hundred and Twentieth St	3 41	5 87
North of One Hundred and Twentieth St..	16	2 79	5 86

Brooklyn.

	Prior to 1850	1851-1900	1901-1908
Section I			
Wards 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 11.....	\$0 90	\$41 65	\$3 89
Section II			
Wards 6, 10, 12.....	1 46	3 05
Section III			
Wards 9, 20, 22.....	14	1 14	1 79
Section IV			
Wards 13, 15, 16, 18, 19.....	87	2 29
Section V			
Wards 14, 17	74	1 32
Section VI			
Wards 8, 30, 31.....	26	78
Section VII			
Ward 26	18	1 27
Section IX			
Wards 23, 24, 25, 27, 28.....	62	1 01
Section X			
Wards 29 and 32.....	23	45

It will be noted that whereas the lowest price paid in Manhattan per square foot between 1851 and 1900 was \$2.79, the highest price paid in Brooklyn's densely populated wards from 1901 to 1908 was only \$3.89—\$1.10 per square foot more—and the price per square foot paid in Manhattan from 1901 to 1908 varied from \$13 to \$5.86; i. e., from more than three times, or about one and one-half times as much as paid during the same period for school sites in the central part of Brooklyn, and from fifteen to thirty times as much as was paid in the outlying wards of Brooklyn.

UNBUSINESSLIKE METHODS OF SECURING LAND FOR SCHOOL SITES.

The following table shows in one case in each borough the penalty the City has paid by failing to secure land for school sites. The record of nearly every school site purchased in Manhattan is an almost equal indictment of this piecemeal policy:

Manhattan.

School 14, 33 Greenwich Avenue.

	Per sq. ft.
1849	\$0 79
1851	0 84
1890	8 40
1897	9 56
1905	13 37

The Bronx.

School 18, Cortlandt Ave., between College and 148th Sts.

	Per sq. ft.
1848	\$0 03
1885	1 07
1896	2 18

Queens.

School 58, Grafton Ave., Clinton Place and Walker St.

	Per sq. ft.
1858	\$0 02
1880	0 07
1892	0 12
1897	0 17
1908	0 43

Brooklyn.

School 34, Norman, Eckford and Oakland Sts.

	Per sq. ft.
1867	\$0 23
1904	3 16
1906	7 16

Richmond.

School 20, Elizabeth, Vreeland, Heberton Sts. and Broadway.

	Per sq. ft.
1842	\$0 02
1876	0 52
1897	0 49
1908	0 80

Cases in which the City has purchased sites piecemeal, and number of times land has been secured for sites for one school in different years:

	Twice	Three Times	Four Times	Five Times	Six Times	Total Cases	No. of Sites Purchased Outright	T't'l Sites
Manhattan	45	30	10	9	94	63	157
The Bronx	12	3	2	1	18	32	50
Brooklyn	38	22	8	4	72	98	170
Queens	18	4	2	1	1	26	73	99
Richmond	12	4	1	2	19	18	37
Total	125	63	23	17	1	229	284	513

Assessed Values and Price Paid.

Table showing the relation between the Assessed Valuation of certain school sites and the price paid for them.

Borough.	Assessed Value	Price Paid
Manhattan	\$703,500 00	\$1,271,585 37
The Bronx	142,000 00	581,410 00
Brooklyn	41,400 00	142,900 00
Queens	20,700 00	46,122 25
Richmond	3,400 00	7,200 00

Department of Education, The City of New York, the Board of Superintendents, Park avenue and Fifty-ninth street, October 21, 1910.

Dr. WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, City Superintendent of Schools:

Dear Sir—I have your direction, dated October 19, to ascertain the number of pupils in excess of 40 who are now in the elementary school classes, and to ascertain how many extra teachers would be required to teach said excess pupils, and the cost of said extra teachers at an average salary of \$900.

Secretary Bussey furnishes the following:

(a) Number of classes containing from 41 to 50 pupils.....	6,125
(b) Number of classes containing from 50 to 60 pupils.....	1,939
(c) Number of classes containing more than 60 pupils.....	145

I exclude the classes which contain fewer than 41, because I understand a class register of 40 is not deemed excessive.

Probability distributes the registers of (a) so that their average size is.. 45½

The average excess over 40 is, therefore..... 5½

6,125 × 5½..... 33,688

Similarly the average size of the (b) classes is 55½

The average excess of these classes above 40 is.....	15½
1,939 × 15½.....	30,055
As to the (c) list, I assume that these classes having more than 60, the average is	65
145 × 25 (the excess over 40) gives the aggregate excess in (c) as....	3,626
Grand total of excess pupils having more than 40.....	67,368
Dividing this number by 40, we obtain the number of extra teachers required to teach said excess.....	1,684
At \$900 each, the cost for their salaries could be.....	\$1,515,600
Respectfully yours,	(Signed) THOMAS D. O'BRIEN,
Inclosures.	Associate City Superintendent.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STREETS AND HIGHWAYS OF THE
NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION,
MR. RUSSELL BLEECKER, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee have held three meetings and examined, among others, the Chief Engineer of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, Mr. Nelson P. Lewis; the Engineer in Charge of Public Improvements, Mr. Arthur S. Tuttle, and Mr. Louis L. Tribus, Consulting Engineer of the Borough of Richmond.

The Committee have studied chiefly the concentration of factories, lofts and mercantile establishments in the centre of Manhattan, the lack of means of carrying freight, narrowness of streets, heights of buildings, the tearing up of streets for construction of buildings and repairs, etc., as also the methods of widening streets and increasing their capacity, both for traffic and passengers.

The importance of the subject is apparent to any one who has seen the congestion of traffic and passengers in the streets downtown, and realizes the cost of widening streets and the relation between the nature of the streets, their composition and comparative cost, to rents in the City. The tables appended show statistically the cost of these various items. The relation of transit lines and streets has also been touched upon by those who have appeared before the Committee, and the Committee on Transit, and suggestions made that transit lines should be determined first and the street lines later.

The following subjects were considered and answers to the questions on these points by Borough Presidents are submitted herewith:

(1) Are more thoroughfares needed and where? Should new parkways through residence sections be 150 feet wide?

(2) Should not the Borough Presidents be asked to call upon the Park Commissioners to plant trees at time the streets are laid out, the cost thereof to be assessed as part of the cost of the streets?

(3) Is not carrying freight by subways preferable to carrying it on surface roads?

(4) In view of the fact that the City is obliged to wait six months after a board to condemn property for public purposes is appointed before it can vest title but the Public Service Commission can vest title for rapid transit purposes immediately, should not legislation be secured to enable the City to acquire property before houses are built upon property so as to enable the owners thereof to secure larger damage? What method can the City adopt to protect itself effectively against this house planting and to secure proper widths of streets?

(5) Should the Commission favor paving streets before sewers are put in?

In answer to the question sent to the Borough Presidents as to what proportion of the Borough is provided with sewerage disposal, it is learned that there is 55 per cent. of Brooklyn, 17.4 per cent. of Queens and 20 per cent. of Richmond. The Borough President of Manhattan expressed the opinion that the lack of such sewers had not in any way prevented the construction of tenements and other dwellings, while the Borough Presidents of Brooklyn, Queens and Richmond stated that the lack of sewers had, particularly in specified sections, prevented the construction of tenements and other dwellings. In reply to the question as to whether it is wise to permit streets to be paved before sewers for sewerage disposal are constructed or such sewers be constructed first, the Borough Presidents of Manhattan, The Bronx and Brooklyn indicate that it would be wisest not to permit this, while the Borough President of Queens stated it depended upon local conditions.

In reference to planting trees at the time streets are paved and assessing the cost thereof on the streets or on the property benefited, there was a difference of opinion; the Borough President of Manhattan stated that tree planting was only feasible in the residence streets. The Borough President of The Bronx stated that it was entirely practical to plant trees even at the time the streets are regulated and

graded, which is frequently a number of years before they are paved, but does not know if the cost should be legally assessed upon the property benefited or not, although probably not. The Queens Borough President stated that trees should be planted as soon as possible. The Richmond Borough President thought that the trees should be planted by the Department of Parks and maintained by it without local assessment.

Congestion of Streets—The appended table shows the number of vehicles passing a certain point in lower Manhattan between given hours and also the number of passengers which have used the sidewalks at the same time, the number of people entering certain buildings within certain periods. While it has not been possible for your Committee to make an elaborate study of the loss of time due to the large number of vehicles held up at street crossings, it is evident that with as high as 2,526 vehicles passing a given point, as was the case at Broadway and Fulton sts., Tuesday, October 27, 1907, in the one hour between 4 and 5 o'clock p. m., a large amount of the time must inevitably be lost with the delay occasioned while the streams of traffic alternate. At Broadway and Chambers sts. it was found by the Police Department that between 10 and 11 a. m. on Tuesday, October 22, 1907, 2,412 vehicles passed. These figures give some indication of the enormous wear and tear upon the streets, moreover due to the concentration of factories, office buildings and places of business in the limited district below Chambers st. It was found, too, that nearly 2,973 people left the National Bank of Commerce Building, 31 Nassau st., in one hour, from 3 to 4 p. m., on August 3, 1908.

Width of Streets—There are in lower Manhattan, between Fulton, Pearl, Water, Whitehall, Battery place and Greenwich sts., two streets for some distance 20 feet wide, having buildings two to ten stories, one street for some distance 24 feet wide having buildings two to eight stories, seven streets for some distance 30 to 34 feet wide having buildings two to seventeen stories, and one street for some distance 75 feet wide having buildings twenty to thirty-six stories. It is evident that, with such narrow streets and with absolutely no limit on the height of buildings, congestion of traffic and passengers is inevitable and that no device that can be adopted and no public regulation, however drastic, will be effective in preventing waste of time if the buildings are permitted to be constructed to unlimited heights.

The Royal Commission on London Traffic suggest in their report that new or widened streets should be divided into five classes:

Main avenues	140 feet wide.
First-class arterial streets.....	100 feet wide.
Second-class streets.....	80 feet wide.
Third-class streets.....	60 feet wide.
Fourth-class streets.....	40-60 feet wide.

This recommendation is made for cities where there is a cubage or volume limit because a limit on the height of buildings.

Most of the streets in Manhattan, except below Chambers st., are from 60 to 75 feet wide except the avenues, Grand st., 14th st., 23d st., 34th st., 42d st., 116th st. and 125th st., which are about 100 feet.

While wide parkways are feasible in some districts, the cost of wide streets is relatively very great.

In order to reduce the rent, streets in garden cities and smaller towns abroad are made as narrow as 18 to 37 feet, usually with the requirement that houses shall be set back a few feet from the lot line, 15 to 20 feet ordinarily, so that the street can subsequently be widened without undue expense. This open space in front is, of course, included in the proportion of the lot area not occupied. These narrower streets reduce the rent from 2 to 8 per cent., according to the material of which the street is made.

Restrictions on Volume or Cubage—Mayor McClellan's Building Code Revision Commission recommended that, while no restrictions be placed upon the height of buildings, that the volume should be restricted, so that the volume of any building should not be greater than 174 times the area of the lot; this would mean that if each story were 14 feet high the building would be limited to 12, and if each story were 12 feet high the building would be limited to 14 stories flat, providing the total area of the lot were covered. In point of fact, however, the volume or cubage of the German-American Insurance Company Building, instead of being 174 times the area of the lot, is 254 times the area of the lot, and the City Investing Building in one part is 313 times the area of the lot, and in another section 298 times the area of the lot, while many other buildings have a cubage from one-third to one-half in excess of the proposed limit.

One of the important measures of the large amount of drayage and congestion of the traffic is the record of freight handled at the terminals of the railroads. Thus the

N. Y., N. H. & H. R. R. report that the total net tonnage brought to New York City by this company and the New England Navigation Company during 1909 was 1,417,544 net tons, of which the N. Y., N. H. & H. R. R. Co. brought to the Harlem River local and to piers 44 and 45, East River, 659,234 tons, while 103,911 tons were brought to Pier 11, North River, and 292,990 to Piers 18 and 19, North River. Similarly 1,379,781 net tons were forwarded from these stations in about the same proportion. The Erie Railroad report that they received at their Duane street station for the year ending June 30, 1910, 295,159 tons and forwarded from this station 182,803 tons, and from Pier 7, East River, they forwarded 58,386 tons and received 34,177 tons.

What Unlimited Volume or Building Would Mean in Lower Manhattan—The Committee have also compiled data showing the effect upon the street traffic of lower Manhattan of building the island up to a certain height. In 1908 they found that there was available for rent in the available area of Manhattan, below Chambers st., 7,422,000 square feet of land, and that, if a reasonable factor of rentability were taken for the buildings of various heights in this important section of Manhattan below Chambers st., that 15-story buildings would give a net floor space available for renting of 72,350,000 square feet, while, if the districts were improved by 25-story buildings, it would provide a net floor space of 111,300,000 square feet. It is very seldom that more than 110 square feet of floor space, even in the most expensive and best arranged and equipped offices is provided for every occupant, and manifestly the improvement of the land available below Chambers st. by such height of buildings from 15 to 25 stories would mean an absolutely impossible burden upon the narrow streets of this section, which are entirely inadequate at present for the traffic which is forced through them, since a flat level of 25 stories would furnish accommodations for about 1,012,000 persons.

Cost of Lack of City Planning—The appended table of typical costs of widening streets shows that the delay to make such widening which is included in a city plan is a very serious financial one; thus the net cost of widening Delancey st., including Commissioners' fees, and condemnation awards, amounted to \$8,490,662.36. This property was acquired from 1899 to 1906 inclusive, and represented about one-tenth of the total City Budget for 1899. The exact cost to the City of a lack of a city plan is extremely difficult to estimate, since there are many factors entering into it, among others the fact that exorbitant prices have been charged for the property when it has been known that it is to be used by the City, while also the interest charges due to the City's failure to pay as it goes along, with the excessive fees paid Condemnation Commissioners and other items have swollen the cost so that an absolutely accurate comparison is not feasible. On the other hand, the broad fact remains that the City is in the habit of paying anywhere from two to five times as much for property a few years after the need for the improvement is recognized as it would have to pay if it acquired it when the need for it is first recognized.

The appended table, prepared by Mr. Nelson P. Lewis, Chief Engineer of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, on the cost of making the improvements suggested by the Mayor's City Improvement Commission, is most significant. In 1907 he estimates the total cost of these few improvements were \$86,808,000, without any provision for anything in the Boroughs of Queens and Richmond. The land values, however, have been increased since that time so that they are at present from 5 to 15 per cent. or more, higher than the amounts given and the total cost will be approximately \$100,000,000, without including anything in the two Boroughs of Queens and Richmond.

The table submitted also by the Committee shows the cost of street widening from 1905 to 1906 inclusive, total, was over \$25,000,000. The mere fact that over one-half of this amount is assessed upon the property benefited does not in any way affect the argument for early acquisition of land by the City as the City has paid and will continue to pay enormous amounts for its failure to make a reasonable plan for the City as a whole and to require real estate operators and developers conform to such a plan as is based upon the needs of the City as a whole and not upon the whims and caprices of property developers.

American Methods of City Planning—A further study has been made by the Committee of the systems which are adopted by American cities during which they have communicated with engineers of large American and Canadian cities. The methods adopted are submitted herewith as an appendix to the report, but it will be noted that only a few of the cities have the power to compel real estate dealers to comply with the plans for the city's development prepared by the City Engineer, but every city recognizes that this is necessary in order to secure a normal development of the city and to save the city enormous expense. It is individuals and corporations that control the development of the city instead of the authorities elected to do so.

Foreign Methods of City Planning—In direct contrast to the American individualistic methods of development of cities is the method of Continental and British cities in which, as your Committee have indicated in their appended report on the subject, the city authorities themselves determine the plans for the city.

Your Committee would call attention to the fact that the most significant and distinguishing feature of foreign city planning is the control by the city over developments and the districting of the city into distinctive parts by the creation of "zones." Each zone has its individual building code which applies to every kind of building since distinction is not made in most foreign countries between the Building Code as applying to tenements, and office or factory buildings.

The English Town Planning Act is similar in its purport and gives wide discretionary power to the municipal authorities, subject, however, to review by the Local Government Board. In both English and other Continental town planning, however, the right of the city to determine absolutely the number of cottages is recognized and the evil conditions of congestion which have occurred in the centre of the city are prevented by the law, which determines absolutely the conditions of the newer sections of the city. This is necessarily a rough and ready justice, since land speculators in foreign cities, as well as in American cities, anticipate the community's need and speculate vigorously in selected tracts, even in the outlying districts of the city. The fact, however, that real estate operators speculate in land is not regarded in foreign countries as any reason why the Government should fail to enforce healthy conditions in those parts of the city where the general enforcement of such conditions is perfectly just and fair.

The data submitted by the Committee shows also that only about four-fifths of the Borough of The Bronx has been finally mapped, less than one-fourth of Queens, and less than one-fifteenth of Richmond, while only one-half of Brooklyn remains to be finally mapped.

They therefore, as the result of study of these conditions, submit the following recommendations:

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON STREETS AND HIGHWAYS OF THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION.

The Committee in following the suggestions which have been made by those who have appeared before the Committee and as a result of their own study of the problem make the following recommendations, and ask that the Committee on Legislation be instructed to draft legislation providing for the measures suggested in these recommendations, with the exception of the first recommendation, which should be made directly to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment and Board of Aldermen.

First: The Committee recommend the immediate preparation of a comprehensive plan for the development of New York City, as is now contemplated by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. In the judgment of the Committee such a plan must be made by a central authority of the City, and they feel that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment Engineers should have the chief part in preparing such a plan, together with such experts as are selected by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The figures submitted by the Committee show that a large proportion of the boroughs of Queens and Richmond are not yet mapped, so that there is adequate opportunity to make such a plan for the future of these Boroughs. The Committee have not had the funds to make such plans in detail, but recognize that it must be made immediately, and that such a plan should be mandatory upon the City. The figures attached show some of the costs to the City from the absence of such a plan. The main points which should be provided for in the City plan are:

- (A) The restriction of the heights of buildings in certain districts.
- (B) The restriction of factories to certain districts.
- (C) The provision for transit lines and means of carrying freight upon the basis of such a districting of the City.
- (D) The determination of the main lines of streets and secondary streets as suggested by Mr. Nelson P. Lewis, Chief Engineer of the Board of Estimate.
- (E) Provision for sewers and sewage disposal and substructures for pipes.
- (F) Provision of adequate sites for parks and playground and recreation centres and Municipal buildings of various sorts.
- (G) Acquisition of adequate land by the City.

The Committee wish, however, emphatically to call attention to the fact that while such a city plan is essential for the proper development of the City, it in itself is not sufficient to prevent congestion of population and room overcrowding, and might, under certain procedure, aggravate the conditions with which the Commission

have been dealing, unless such plans are made with due regard to securing adequate cheap land for houses for wage earners, and unless steps are taken to ensure that the increase in the land values due to the community action shall be secured by the City. Even before, however, such a city plan is definitely prepared your Committee feel that several steps should be undertaken at once, as follows:

Second: The Committee recognize that the restriction of the height of buildings is essential, since the cost of widening the narrow streets of the City, especially lower Manhattan, is practically prohibitive, and there is no economic or business necessity for increasing the height of buildings in many sections of lower Manhattan, and recommend that in lower Manhattan buildings should not exceed a cubage of 174 times the area of the site; in upper Manhattan and lower Bronx, the western part of Brooklyn, of 125 times the area of the site; in the rest of New York of 75 times the area of the site.

Third: The Committee recommend that the parkways should be at least 150 feet wide, since this seems to be the minimum width feasible for roadways of this importance.

Fourth: The Committee recommend that very cheap land in outlying districts of the City be developed with homes for wage earners, and that narrow streets, even 30 feet wide, be permitted, in every case with the sanction of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, since the cost of making and maintaining wider streets is a very serious item in the rent, and the narrow streets mean a saving of from 2 to 8 per cent. in the rent of homes. In view of the fact, however, that the development of the City may require wider streets later, they recommend that legislation be secured by which the City may require that on all streets under 40 feet in width, the houses shall be set back from the curb line at least 10 feet, or that the roadway of roads in such districts should be very narrow and the street courts very wide, which would permit later widening of the streets to at least 40 to 60 feet, and provided that the lots be of such depth that when streets are widened by taking off the front garden or yard they will still be about 100 feet deep. They recommend, however, that at least every third street should be 50 feet wide, and that there should be streets not less than 2,000 feet apart, at least 75 feet wide.

Fifth: The Committee recommend that legislation should be passed forbidding any property owner to transfer his property unless he has filed with the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, prior to sale, a map showing the subdivision of the property, and showing that it has been approved and accepted by the City, provided that such approval must be given or changes recommended by the city authorities within six months of the time the plans are submitted to them.

Sixth: The Committee recommend that no development shall be approved by the City unless a map showing such development shall be filed and accepted by the City as in conformity with the plans for the development of the district, provided that such approval must be given or changes recommended by the city authorities within six months of the time the plan of the development is submitted to them.

Seventh: The Committee recommend that the City should immediately acquire as much land as will be necessary for public purposes for the proper development of the City.

Eighth: The Committee recommend that legislation be secured providing for the arcading of narrow streets through setting back the first story where necessary, and providing adequate foot-ways for passengers. They are convinced that it is an unjustifiable expenditure of the City's money to acquire title to expensive land along these narrow streets, since it involves an excessive price for the land and the construction of higher buildings on such land will nullify the values increasing from the slight widening of the streets. Where necessary the City should be permitted to allow pillars as support of buildings above the first story, and legislation to enable this should be secured.

Ninth: The Committee recommend that encroachments on narrow streets should be prohibited, and that where it is impossible or impracticable to remove such encroachments immediately, that the owners of the property should be charged rental for the public land used with a provision that such use of the land should be only during the life of the building, and that no additional buildings will be permitted by the City, or for a specified time.

Tenth: The Committee recommend that subways be provided for passengers on crowded streets, such as at the corner of Fulton st. and Broadway, 42d st. and Fifth ave., such as the Rotherhithe Tunnel in London, and a subway for cars on 42d st. and Fifth ave.

Eleventh: The Committee recommend the principle of excess condemnation of land qualifiedly, since they feel that this is feasible in sections of the City where land is cheap, but that it is not feasible in crowded sections of the City, where at

present values of land are enormously high, since in order to make the improvements pay, it would be necessary to have the land increase in value to such an extent as would make it useless for safe and healthy living and working conditions.

STATEMENT TO THE COMMITTEE BY HON. NELSON P. LEWIS, CHIEF ENGINEER OF THE BOARD OF ESTIMATE AND APPORTIONMENT.

Mr. Nelson P. Lewis spoke to the Committee on organic defects in the plan of New York City. He emphasized the opportunities for constructive work in the different Boroughs. The City Charter imposes upon each Borough President the authority and duty of preparing a plan for that portion of his Borough which has not been completely mapped. The plan of that portion of the Borough of Queens formerly known as Long Island City, was, by the Charter, made a part of the map or plan of The City of New York, but no other portions of the Borough, such as Jamaica, Flushing and the Rockaways, were made a part of the city plan. The tendency appears to be to extend the old Long Island City plan in all directions over the remainder of the Borough. It has always appeared to me that this was not the proper way to undertake the problem, but that the City should first take an account of stock, as it were, that is, that the first step in preparing a plan for this great undeveloped territory should be to locate the existing highways, correcting their alignment and widening them where necessary, and supplying such links as might be needed to make a more or less complete system of main thoroughfares which would cover the entire Borough, after which title should be acquired to the land necessary to straighten and widen these streets. It would then be a comparatively simple matter to fill in the details, while at the same time the existing improvements and layouts where they are in any way suitable could readily be incorporated in the city plan without unnecessary destruction of improvements and the impairment of values. At the same time it would, in my judgment, be wise for the City to acquire in most, if not all, of the areas enclosed by these thoroughfares tracts of land which could be bought at acreage prices and could be reserved for various municipal purposes, such as small parks, sites for schools, libraries, police and fire houses, and fire houses, and for all municipal purposes. It would be possible to group the subordinate municipal buildings in an effective manner, and it would be very desirable if the amount of land purchased were sufficiently large to permit the City to sell what is not needed, with the probable result that such sales would realize enough to pay not only the cost of the original acquisition of these sites, but also of the buildings themselves.

In reply to a question from Professor Goodnow as to whether it would be a better plan to take the matter out of the Borough President's hands and put it in the hands of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, Mr. Lewis stated that he was not prepared to suggest any change of jurisdiction, and that it would be manifestly improper for him to do so. He only intended to point out policies in the planning of the new Boroughs which he believed would result in a more attractive city and in great economy.

Attention was called to the fact that in the first Greater New York Charter there was concentrated in the Board of Public Improvements this power to complete the map of the City, and that almost no progress was made during four years. Mr. Lewis, however, pointed out that under the first Charter plans made by the Board of Public Improvements had to be submitted to and approved by both branches of the Municipal Legislature, namely, the Council and the Board of Aldermen, and it was this awkward proceeding which made it impossible to accomplish results.

Mr. Cantor asked whether the Board of Estimate and Apportionment could not adopt a plan for the City. In reply, Mr. Lewis stated that the present Charter distinctly imposes upon the Borough Presidents the duty of completing a plan for each Borough, and while these plans are not official until approved by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, it does not appear that the Board has any power except that of approval or rejection, and that it is not authorized to take the initiative in planning new territory, although it can do so in changing plans already adopted.

One of the great advantages of the adoption of a plan at as early a date as possible might be to prevent the erection of buildings within the lines of the proposed streets, but the courts in this State appear to have decided that the City cannot prevent the owner of the property within the street lines from using it in any way he sees fit until the City shall itself have taken title to the land, even though buildings may be erected within the street lines for the express purpose of selling them to the City for more than they are worth.

In connection with the question of excess condemnation, Mr. Lewis stated that The City of New York has not the power at the present time to acquire more

than the land actually needed to physically carry out any improvement. Without such right it is impossible for the City to adopt the policy so successfully employed in Europe of acquiring all of the parcels, portions of which are needed for improvements, and selling the surplus land, recouping in this way a large portion of the initial expense. The proportion of such expense thus recovered varies greatly, but in one case in the City of London, namely, the acquisition and improvement of Northumberland ave., the city seems to have made a clear profit of some \$200,000. The first steps are taken this year to amend the constitution of the State of New York so that The City of New York might be given this power. If this action is confirmed by the Legislature of 1911, the amendment can be submitted to the people next year.

Record of Number of People Entering or Leaving

Buildings—Addresses and Date.	During the Day.		Number.	Greatest During From.
	From.	To.		
Singer Bldg., 149 Broadway, July 30, 1908..	a.m. 8.00	p.m. 2.00		p.m.
	3.15	6.00	11,027	3.15
The Equitable Bldg., 120 Broadway, July 30, 1908	8.00	6.00	10,072	2.00
Trust Co. of America, 41 Wall St., July 31, 1908	7.45	2.45		1.00
	3.45	6.00	18,795	
Bowling Green Bldg., 11 Broadway, July 31, 1908	8.00	6.00	13,861	1.00
Mutual Life Building, 32 Nassau St., Aug. 1, 1908	8.00	2.00	7,928	a.m. 11.00
Silversmiths Bldg., 13 Maiden Lane, Aug. 1, 1908	8.00	2.00	6,903	noon. 12.30
Broadway-Maiden Lane Bldg., 170 Broad- way, Aug. 3, 1908	8.30	6.00	12,537	p.m. 1.00
National Bank of Commerce, 32 Nassau St., Aug. 3, 1908	8.30	6.00	15,216	3.00

Office Buildings in Lower Manhattan.

Number. the Day. To.	Number.	Greatest Number, 15 min.		Number.	Average per min., 15 min.	Average per day.	Width of Side- walk.
p.m.		p.m.	p.m.				
4.15	2,580	3.45	4.00	827	55	19	20
3.00	1,708	4.00	4.15	517	35	17	17½
		1.00	1.15	1,022	68	34	20
2.00	1,763	11.00	11.15	681	45	26	15
noon.		noon.					
12.00	1,599	12.30	12.45	770	51	22	10
p.m.		a.m.	a.m.				
1.30	1,140	11.30	11.45	520	35	19	10
p.m.		noon.	noon.				
2.00	1,878	12.45	1.00	556	37	22	20
4.00	2,973	3.15	3.30	827	55	27	10

ESTIMATED COST OF CARRYING OUT IMPROVEMENTS AND CHANGES IN THE CITY PLAN
RECOMMENDED BY THE MAYOR'S CITY IMPROVEMENT COMMISSION.

Report by Mr. Nelson P. Lewis, Chief Engineer of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, to that body September 26, 1907:

Manhattan.

New street extending from the Manhattan terminal of the Manhattan Bridge at the Bowery and Canal st. to the southerly end of 6th ave.	\$10,815,000 00
Extension of Delancey st., from Lafayette to Broadway.....	1,668,000 00
Extension of Madison ave. from 23d st. to 4th ave., at 7th st.....	5,000,000 00
Widening 60th st., between 3d and 5th aves., by taking one-half block on the southerly side of the street.....	11,130,000 00
New diagonal street, from 57th st. and 3d ave. to 59th st. and 2d ave.	1,185,000 00
Extension of Riverside Drive southerly to West End ave. and 69th st.	1,595,000 00
New diagonal street, from 7th ave. and West 142d st. to Walton ave., in the Borough of The Bronx.....	1,445,000 00
Widening W. 181st st., from Amsterdam ave. to Wadsworth ave....	765,000 00
Addition to park area east of Riverside Drive.....	5,625,000 00
Widening Dyckman st., from 200 feet east of Naegle ave. to B'way	1,725,000 00
Acquiring the property west of Riverside Drive, north of W. 155th st., including the northerly end of Fort Washington Hill and Inwood Hill, as a public park.....	7,675,000 00
Total	\$48,628,000 00

Brooklyn.

Bridge st. extension from Fulton st. to 4th ave.....	\$3,730,000 00
Widening of Ashland place.....	1,460,000 00
Extension of Hamilton ave., from 3d to 4th aves.....	180,000 00
Extension of Flatbush ave. to Rockaway Inlet.....	250,000 00
New thoroughfare from 4th and Flatbush aves. to Greenpoint at Kingsland ave.	13,950,000 00
New thoroughfare from So. 5th st. and Williamsburgh Bridge Plaza to Ralph ave. and Remsen ave., omitting new street between Sumner ave. and Lewis ave.	5,920,000 00
Total	\$25,490,000 00

The Bronx.

Park at the northeasterly end of the Hudson Memorial Viaduct and the Hudson River	\$3,160,000 00
Park between Sedgwick and Cedar aves. and the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company's tracks.....	2,230,000 00
Total	\$5,390,000 00

"Summarizing the above estimates of cost of acquiring property for the improvements recommended for the Boroughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn and The Bronx, we find them to be as follows:

Manhattan	\$48,628,000 00
Brooklyn	25,490,000 00
The Bronx	5,390,000 00
Total	\$79,508,000 00

As already stated, the plan for relieving the situation at the lower end of 6th and 7th aves. has not been included in this estimate, but a separate report has been prepared giving the estimated value of the land required as \$7,300,000. If this were added to the above total, it would become \$86,808,000 with no provision for anything in the Boroughs of Queens and Richmond.

The land values have been increasing so that they are at present from 5 per cent. to 15 per cent. or over, higher than the amounts given.

SUMMARY OF REPLIES BY BOROUGH PRESIDENTS TO INFORMATION REQUESTED BY THE
NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION.

1st. What proportion of the Borough is provided with sewerage disposal sewers?

Manhattan—Entire Borough, except small portion in the extreme northerly end where streets are not laid and few odd blocks.

The Bronx—

Brooklyn—Fifty-five per cent.

Queens—17.4 per cent. 10,065 acres.

Richmond—Twenty per cent.

2d. In your judgment has the lack of such sewers prevented the construction of tenements and other dwellings?

Manhattan—No.

The Bronx—

Brooklyn—Undoubtedly along the southeasterly portion of the Borough generally.

Queens—Yes. Particularly in Blissville section of Long Island City and Woodhaven.

Richmond—Building development quite rapidly follows completion of sewers. Scarcely in position to reply conclusively, as efforts have been largely to secure construction of adequate sewers primarily in districts already well built upon, but find considerable opposition to proposals for building sewers extensively in localities scantily developed. In many cases assessed land values before development will not permit sewer construction under present laws.

(a) Would you suggest any methods of expediting the provision of sewers?

Manhattan—As sewers are built for sanitary reasons, and as no building is allowed to be occupied until it has adequate sewerage, it would seem that the President of the Borough might be clothed with the same authority that the Commissioner of Public Works had under the old regime, who was allowed to complete the sewerage system throughout the city and to alter and improve existing sewers as necessity required. No petition was necessary, and the only requirement was that maps, showing the proposed work, should be filed before letting contract for same.

Bronx—Entirely in the hands of the property owners. The only way in which this matter can be expedited would be to urge the property owners to petition for the construction.

Brooklyn—Provide the means of opening the streets expeditiously.

Queens—Construction of sewers could be expedited if Board of Estimate and Apportionment would recommend the approval of sewerage systems in isolated sections, these systems to be finally incorporated, perhaps with some modifications, with the scheme for the whole Borough, or by having them approve a system just showing the location, size, and grade of the outlet sewer, the sewers for the separate localities to be designed as the need develops.

Richmond—

3. Do you consider it wise to permit streets to be paved before sewers for sewerage disposal are constructed or should such sewers be constructed first?

Manhattan—Unwise to pave streets before sewers are built.

The Bronx—It is the policy of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment not to pave streets until all subsurface structures are in place.

Brooklyn—Sewers first.

Queens—Depends upon local conditions. In a district where the sewers can be constructed without entailing much hardship on account of assessment, or where rapid development would follow the construction of a sewer, the sewer should be built before paving the street. In a district in which the immediate construction of a sewer is not necessary, or on a street which carries or would carry, if improved, a large amount of traffic, it would be much better to put in some pavement which would be easily prepared before the sewer is constructed.

Richmond—In considering a new locality solely, it would certainly be desirable to build the permanent sewers before paving the roadways, but, in many portions of Richmond, particularly within the old incorporated village, small sewers existed, rendering a certain amount of service, not adequate, but sufficient for a time; consequently it has seemed desirable to proceed with the paving of permanent pavements, and we believe the value to the public has been secured by several years of use before the construction of better and more modern sewers became imperative.

4th. Would you consider it feasible to require that trees should be planted at the time streets are paved, the cost thereof to be assessed with the cost of streets, on the property benefited?

Manhattan—Should imagine that tree planting is only feasible in the resident streets, and that the growth of trees when the surface of the ground is impervious,

being caused by pavement and flagging, could not be counted on without great care and attention.

The Bronx—Entirely practicable to plant trees even at the time that streets are regulated and graded, which is frequently a number of years before they are paved. Do not know if this cost could be legally assessed on property benefited—probably not.

Brooklyn—

Queens—Trees should be planted as soon as possible when the street is graded, or if the cut or fill of the street is very slight before grading.

Richmond—Should be planted by the Department of Parks, and be maintained by it without local assessment. If property owners desire to plant trees in advance of the official establishment of grades such should be optional, but no complaint should be made at their loss or the necessity of changing them when a full street improvement became necessary.

What Would Be the Floor Space Available in Manhattan Below Chambers Street If All the Available Area Would Be Built Up With 15, 20 and 25-Story Buildings?

Note.—The Building Code requires 10 per cent. vacant on street lots. As the corner lots represent only a small part of the total (not over 5 per cent.), this is simplified by the more conservative assumption that all lots require 20 per cent. vacant.

Deducting from grand total area: Streets, parks, cemeteries, open spaces, churches and Brooklyn Bridge piers, of a total of 7,610,555 square feet, we find an available gross area of 9,275,000 square feet. Deducting further 20 per cent., 1,853,000 square feet, we find:

Available net area..... 7,420,000 square feet.

Assuming a factor of rentability of 0.65 for 15-story building.

Assuming a factor of rentability of 0.625 for 20-story building.

Assuming a factor of rentability of 0.60 for 25-story building.

We find available floor space:

If 15-story buildings were constructed..... 72,350,000 square feet.

If 20-story buildings were constructed..... 92,750,000 square feet.

If 25-story buildings were constructed..... 111,300,000 square feet.

(Signed) WM. A. RUSSEL.

Rentable Store Floor Space Below Chambers Street.

	Square Feet.
Below Cortlandt street, east of Broadway.....	1,760,999
Below Cortlandt street and Maiden lane, west of Broadway.....	3,108,020
Between Cortlandt and Chambers streets, east of Broadway.....	3,444,881
Between Maiden lane and New Chambers street.....	4,768,012

Grand total 13,081,912

Number of Square Feet of Rentable Office Floor Space Below Chambers Street, July 1, 1908.

In Buildings of Stories.	Per Cent.
1 to 6 3,176,410 square ft., assuming 75 per cent. of floor space rentable, 22.305	
7 to 10 2,807,082.80 square ft., assuming 70 per cent. of floor space rentable, 19.711	
11 to 15 3,229,582.35 square ft., assuming 65 per cent. of floor space rentable, 22.678	
16 to 20 1,688,862.25 square ft., assuming 62.5 per cent. of floor space rentable, 11.859	
Over 20 3,338,568 square ft., assuming 60 per cent. of floor space rentable, 23.444	
14,240,505.40	100.00

Office space was provided for 129,459.14 tenants (allowing 110 square feet for each occupant) in this district.

Number of Square Feet of Rentable Factory Floor Space Below Chambers Street, July, 1908.

In Stories.	Per Cent.
1 to 6 6,382,995 square ft., assuming 90 per cent. of entire floor space, 79.54	
7 to 10 1,133,321.25 square ft., assuming 85 per cent. of entire floor space, 14.12	
11 to 15 512,228.50 square ft., assuming 80 per cent. of entire floor space, 6.39	
8,028,544.75	100.00

286,733.75 persons, for whom floor space is provided in factories, allowing 28 square feet for each occupant.

1908 Classification of Manhattan Below Chambers St.

	Square Feet.	Per Cent.	
1. Offices	2,509,214	14.9	
2. Public buildings	373,995	2.2	
3. Factories	1,858,954	11	
4. Stores	3,485,702	20.7	
5. Tenements	341,602	2	
6. Churches	36,384	0.2	
7. Brooklyn Bridge piers	126,609	0.8	
8. Miscellaneous buildings	93,071	0.5	
Built upon	8,825,531		52.3
9. Vacant lots	88,908	0.5	
10. Courts and yards	523,505	3.1	
11. Cemeteries	137,903	0.8	
12. Parks	1,284,014	7.6	
13. Open spaces	18,744	0.1	
14. Streets	6,007,001	35.6	
Not built upon	8,062,843		47.7
Total area below Chambers st.	16,885,606		100

Classification of Area Occupied By Buildings in Section of Manhattan Below Chambers St.

	Square Feet.	Per Cent.
1. Offices	2,509,214	28.5
2. Public buildings	373,995	4.2
3. Factories	1,858,954	21
4. Stores	3,485,702	39.5
5. Tenements	341,602	3.9
6. Churches	36,384	0.4
7. Brooklyn Bridge piers	126,609	1.4
8. Miscellaneous buildings	93,071	1.1
Total buildings, areas built upon	8,825,531	100

Classification Area Not Occupied By Buildings in Section of Manhattan Below Chambers St.

	Square Feet.	Per Cent.
9. Vacant lots	88,908	1.1 can be built upon.
10. Courts and yards	523,505	6.5
11. Cemeteries	137,903	1.7
12. Parks	1,284,014	16
13. Open spaces near Brooklyn Bridge	18,744	0.2
14. Streets	6,007,001	74.5
Total area not built upon	8,060,075	100

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TRANSIT, DOCKS AND FERRIES,
MR. GILBERT ELLIOTT, CHAIRMAN.

Many of the speakers before the various committees of the Commission, of which the members of the Transit Committee are members, as well as those before the Committee on Transit, Docks and Ferries, emphasized the necessity of distributing factories as a means of distributing population and eliminating the cost of transit in the cost of production. The Committee recognizes the validity of these statements and arguments. They appreciate also the fact that methods of carrying freight must be provided.

The Committee believes that some of the important points to be observed in the plans for rapid transit to prevent congestion of population are as follows:

First: Transit lines must not parallel nearby already congested transit lines.

Second: Transit lines which radiate bring into the market more land for the same expense than transit lines which are parallel and close together.

Third: Expensive transit lines are apt to produce congestion of population, because of the large earnings necessary to make them pay, which stimulates the construction of large tenements, whose population inevitably congests the lines of transit.

Fourth: Transit lines must be constructed simultaneously in sufficient directions to prevent undue increases of land values which will follow if but one line is constructed at a time, as, for example, the Washington Heights neighborhood in Manhattan, where the limited number of lots near the subway brought such high prices that large buildings had to be constructed.

Fifth: Cheap lines of transit must be constructed in sparsely settled districts.

Sixth: Cheap lines of transit must be constructed in the newer districts before they can be made self sustaining to encourage population to move there. The provision for transit in New York City has always been from five to ten years behind the need, because the City has had no power to compel the construction of extensions, and the private companies would not do so until a profit was assured.

METHODS WHICH OTHER AMERICAN CITIES ARE ADOPTING TO SECURE EXTENSIONS TO
THEIR TRANSIT LINES.

Under the terms of the franchise granted the International Railway Company by the City of Buffalo, on December, 1905, for Fillmore avenue, the grant is made for the period of only 25 years from date of its acceptance unless extended for a further period, and does not become operative until the company files with the City Clerk a written acceptance of all the terms and conditions thereof, expressly waiving any and all objections as to the reasonableness or legality of any of the provisions of same or as to the legal right or authority of the city to impose the same. At least sixty days before the expiration of the grant the Common Council is required to notify the railway company whether the City will take over the railway, and arrangements are made by which three appraisers, one to be selected by the railway company, one by the City and the third to be selected by the two, shall appraise the value of the property, similar provisions being made for the prices to be paid by another company for the line if the International Railway Company does not wish to continue the operation.

Indianapolis—The franchise of the Indianapolis Street Railway Company, approved April 8, 1899, also provides that when it appears to the Board of Public Works that the City, from different causes, or the public interests demand the extension of any line of the street railway already in operation or the construction of a new line in and upon any streets, alleys, avenues or public places of said city, that the said Board of Public Works shall cause written notice to be given to the President, Secretary, General Manager or Superintendent of the company, requiring them to appear before the Board on a certain day, to be named in said notice, not less than five days after the service of such notice, and show cause why the proposed extension should not be made or such proposed new lines should not be constructed. This notice has to contain a description of the streets, alleys, etc., for which the extension is proposed to be constructed. If after due hearing it appears to the Board that the public interest requires such extension to be made, it is authorized to make an order requiring such extension, and in such order shall fix the time in which the said extension shall be made or new lines shall be constructed, but the period is so fixed that it shall always be of sufficient length to permit the company, by the exercise of reasonable diligence, to make such extensions or construct such lines within the time. The written notice must be given by the Board of Public Works to the company of such order, and should they fail to make such extension or construct such new lines within the time fixed, they must forfeit to the city the sum of \$50 for each day that the completion of such extension or construction of such new lines is delayed beyond

the date fixed. This is part of the franchise of the Indianapolis Street Railway Company, and it is assumed that the company will make a fair profit on the extensions.

Minneapolis—Similar authority is contained in the franchise of the Minneapolis Street Railway Company, granted July 17, 1875, and in case the company fails or neglects at any time to keep in operation any line or railway which it may have constructed, then, upon reasonable notice, the City Council may forfeit the exclusive rights granted, so far as it pertains to such neglected line. The City of Minneapolis has authority also to require the joint use of portions of the track belonging to the Minneapolis Street Railway Company of any other street railway company which the Council may charter under terms of the ordinance, to connect with and jointly use such portions of the tracks belonging to each, as the convenience of the traveling public may require.

Columbus—The City of Columbus requires the Columbus Street Railway Company, by an ordinance of February 6, 1901, to expend during the life of the grant (25 years) not less than \$1,000,000 in extensions and betterments, and they may by ordinance require such reasonable extensions of such of the lines operated by the company as may be necessary for the efficient operations of the railway and for the convenience of the public whenever along the line of any such proposed extension and between parallel lines 400 feet distant on each side thereof, there shall be, if such extension is ordered, not less than 150 separate buildings used and occupied as dwellings per mile, or in like proportion for any less distance, although the company must not be required to construct more than one mile of extension in one calendar year. The franchise rights expire at the end of 25 years.

Chicago—Extract from Chicago City Railway ordinance of February 11, 1907:

"Section 3. The said City shall have the right, subject to the limitations contained in this ordinance, at any time to require the Company to make extensions of and additions to the lines of street railways enumerated in said 'Exhibit A.' Such extensions and additions shall be made under the supervision of the Board of Supervising Engineers, as hereinafter in Section 7 provided, and the cost thereof shall be determined as provided in said section. The character and quality of such work shall comply with the specifications set forth in said 'Exhibit B,' so far as the same may be applicable thereto.

"The Company shall, however, upon the order of the City Council of the City, construct, equip and operate such extensions of its street railway system in addition to those hereinabove provided for as may be required by the City Council, subject to the conditions and limitations contained in Section 25 of this ordinance."

The Committee, after a careful study of the conditions of transit in New York City, including the franchise system, the operating system and the system of fares and the unused capacity of present facilities, as well as suggestions submitted to them regarding the general lines of future development, make the following report and recommendations:

First: A comprehensive transit system is essential for uniform and universal transfers and unified operation. The Committee do not feel that it is necessary for them to go into discussion as to the need for a universal transfer between points within a comparatively short distance. It is perfectly true that the horrors of congestion of population have been amply demonstrated, that the increasing congestion of population has been deplored, but one of the fundamental causes of congestion of population, many witnesses before the Transit Committee have emphasized, is the inability of the people to pay more than one fare. An extra fare for the working man for three hundred (300) working days means a net total of \$30 per person. This will pay, in many sections of the City, for an additional room which the family needs for their living purposes. At present each borough is practically a five-cent zone, but interborough travel is voluminous and will be constantly increasing.

Second: The subways and the elevated roads furnish the key to an urban transit system. The control of these expensive links will, sooner or later, bring complete control of all street railway transit facilities. It appears, from a careful examination of the general transit situation, that the following points are essential in any adequate program for the transit development in New York City: (a) The existing perpetual franchises should be terminated, as opportunity offers, some by forfeiture, where through neglect or non-compliance with the law they should be forfeited; others through condemnation or through purchase or negotiation, substituting modern short term or indeterminate franchises for the present franchises. (b) Extensions of the existing subway system of the City should be planned so as to utilize to their capacity the subways, bridges and elevated railroads already constructed, and so as to bring the people from the outlying portions directly into and through the principal business districts, with quick service, for a single fare. The advantages of municipal ownership of all transit lines to accomplish this is evident. It will enable the City to

adapt the transit lines of the entire City to the purpose of transit lines, viz., to distribute population through the City. In order to do this, lines must run into districts where land is cheap, and while some lines may not pay a money profit at first, they will be extremely profitable from the point of view of conserving the general welfare and prosperity of the citizens and in developing the City. This is a matter in which the City as a whole is deeply interested.

Third: The Committee recommends that lines be extended at once into the outlying boroughs and especially radiating lines, so as to make much land available for dwellings. As has been stated before the Committee, one transit line parallel and near to another congested line is almost certain to produce congestion of population under present building laws. The Committee, however, would call attention to the fact that these lines into other boroughs need not necessarily be subways, which are extremely expensive, but elevated lines, suspended, depressed or surface lines, all of which can be constructed for a small part of the cost of subways. When a large investment is put into a transit line, the earnings of this line must be proportionately heavy or even a fair return cannot be paid on the investment, and it is much more economical to have several cheaply constructed lines in many directions, each carrying relatively few passengers, than to have one expensive line carrying a mass of passengers, since the multiplication of lines tends to keep land cheap, an essential to the prevention of congestion.

Fourth: The Committee recommends that the City take necessary steps to induce more of its population to move to boroughs where there are large amounts of vacant land not now accessible; that the Interborough Rapid Transit Company be requested to extend the lines which it is understood it is about to project to the Queens side of the Queensboro Bridge and through the Steinway Tunnel, into several portions of the Borough of Queens, and that if this cannot be done the franchise for the bridge and tunnel should provide for the operation for one fare of extensions to be built into the Borough of Queens. We believe that some subway should be constructed as early as possible into the Borough of Richmond, to provide rapid transit for its extensive area, and that pending the completion of such a tunnel, forty tickets should be sold for \$1 on the Municipal Ferry to Richmond, to enable people of small or moderate means to live there. These recommendations we make because of the immense investments which the City has made in its bridges across the East River and the Harlem River for the benefit of all other boroughs, and as an essential means of developing the Borough of Richmond.

Fifth: The Committee endorses the principle of ownership by the City of lines of transit, not solely upon the relative merits of ownership by private capital and by the City, but because transit is primarily a public question and necessary to prevent congestion, and the City can afford to invest money in transit lines because of the great advantages to be derived by the City, and for the comfort and necessity of the people.

Sixth: The Committee believes that essential as is the construction of rapid transit to connect the residence and the tenement sections with manufacturing centres, that transit and its cost is, in spite of all arguments to the contrary, a waste in the cost of production that can be, in large measure, eliminated.

Seventh: The Committee recommends that the Rapid Transit Law be so amended as to confer upon the Public Service Commission and the City authorities the same powers with respect to surface lines as they now have with respect to rapid transit lines.

Eighth: The Committee recommends that, as a means of reducing the expenditure for carfare, measures should be taken to discourage the location of more factories in Manhattan, and to encourage the distribution of factories now located in that borough.

Ninth: The Committee recommends that the City develop, for factory purposes, the waterfronts in all of the boroughs which it owns and is adapted for this purpose.

Tenth: The Committee recommends restricting the height and volume of buildings. The Committee realizes that no transit system has yet been devised, even in cities more advantageously situated and without the natural barriers to transit which the rivers around Manhattan constitute, to carry economically and effectively the masses of population which live, or will live, within a radius of 20 miles, to work in a city like Manhattan with a flat level of 25, 20 and even 15-story buildings. It has been amply demonstrated that the low-waged working population cannot live in Manhattan in the sort of houses which the American workman should have, and it is self-evident that to increase the height of buildings in the City by one and two stories a year, or by the continuous construction of skyscrapers of enormous volume, from 16 to 46 stories in height, will require forms of transit which are absolutely uneconomical, and a waste of money, time and strength.

Eleventh: The Committee has given considerable attention to the proposition to construct an elevated freight line along the marginal way adjoining the Hudson River, with huge freight terminals and warehouses, with room for factories on the upper floors. The elevated railway might appeal to us if the interest and the operating expenses can be made by the saving in the handling of the freight. This should be carefully safeguarded, so that the use of these lines will be open to all railroad companies. We do not object to the terminals and possibly the storage warehouses, but we believe that the huge factories proposed would attract to the localities such an enormous number of workers as to cause a congestion in the neighborhood which would be worse than the freight congestion now objected to. We believe it ought to be possible to establish lines for the handling of freight throughout the City, so as to distribute factories in many sections. These might be partly elevated and partly subway. Pending such construction, we suggest the possibility of using some of the present transit lines for the carriage of freight between twelve at night and six o'clock in the morning, when the passenger traffic is very light. If freight distributing lines are found to be too expensive, the City might well secure small tracts of land on the waterfront throughout the City and provide opportunity for car floats to dock at several points, and so diminish the congestion at any single point and avoid the cost of a huge freight terminal.

MEMORANDUM IN REGARD TO TRANSIT FACILITIES AND POLICIES OF NEW YORK CITY
WITH REFERENCE TO DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION.

1. *Franchise System.*

All transit franchises granted either by the Legislature or by the local authorities, within the present limits of Greater New York, prior to the enactment of the Greater New York Charter in 1897, were unlimited as to term, and therefore perpetual, as determined by the Court of Appeals in the case of *People v. O'Brien*, 111 N. Y., 1, and other cases. These old perpetual grants cover the entire transit system of the City, with the following exceptions:

(a) The subway, constructed on the City's credit and equipped with private capital under operating leases, known as Contract No. 1 and Contract No. 2. Contract No. 1 covers the portion of the subway north of City Hall Park and extends for a period of fifty years from October 27, 1904, with the right of renewal for twenty-five years more at a revaluation. Contract No. 2 covers the portion of the subway south of City Hall Park in Manhattan and extends to Atlantic avenue, Brooklyn. This contract runs for a period of thirty-five years from May 1, 1908, with the right of renewal for twenty-five years more upon a revaluation.

(b) The McAdoo and Pennsylvania tunnels, whose franchises are perpetual, subject to a revaluation at the end of twenty-five years, and subject, so far as the McAdoo extensions north of Christopher st. are concerned, to purchase by the City after twenty-five years, on certain conditions.

(c) Street railway franchises granted by the City since consolidation, including the Kingsbridge Railway franchise on upper Broadway; the New York City Interborough Railway franchise, in The Bronx; certain extensions of the Union Railway Company's system, in The Bronx; two extensions of the Bronx Traction Company's system, in the Bronx; one small extension of the New York and Queens County Railway, in Queens; the New York and North Shore Traction franchise, in Queens; The South Shore Traction franchise, in Queens; the New York and Long Island Traction franchise, in Queens; one Ocean Electric Railway extension, in Queens; the Livingston and Lafayette sts. extension of the Nassau Electric Railroad, in Brooklyn; the Bush Terminal Railroad franchise, in Brooklyn, and a few unimportant extensions and connections at various points in the City.

These franchises are limited under the charter to an original period of twenty-five years, with a renewal of twenty-five years more at a revaluation, but some of them have been granted for shorter periods. All, or nearly all, of these franchises provide that at their final expiration the tracks and other fixtures within street lines shall revert to and become the property of the City without cost.

(d) Rights to the use of certain bridges over the East and Harlem Rivers and other streams, granted originally by the Bridge Trustees, the Bridge Department, the Board of Estimate or other City authority. Most of these grants are for short terms or are terminable at the pleasure of the City. The tracks on the bridges are, for the most part, owned by the City.

Omitting the 73 miles of operated track in the City-owned subway and the 22 miles of City-owned surface and elevated tracks operated on the bridges, the relative importance of perpetual and limited term franchises in the City is shown by the fact that out of a total of 1,200 miles of single operated street railway track (surface,

underground and elevated), approximately 1,150 miles are operated under perpetual franchises, and only about 50 miles under limited franchises.

It should also be noted that there are outstanding perpetual franchises thus far unused on about four hundred different streets in the Greater City, with a route mileage of over 200 miles. The status of many of these franchises is quite uncertain. The confusion in the Railroad Law is such that it is almost impossible to determine whether or not a franchise has been forfeited until the court of last resort has issued its final decree in each particular case.

As the law now stands, future franchise grants will differ in material respects from the majority of those now in force. The only strictly perpetual franchises that may be granted are for trunk line railroads. Under the Rapid Transit Act, the Public Service Commission, with the approval of the Board of Estimate, may grant franchises for subways and elevated roads, including third tracking and connections, on the indeterminate basis, reserving to the City the right to terminate the grants and take over the property at any time after the expiration of ten years upon payment of a price that shall not exceed the cost of construction and equipment, plus a 15 per cent. bonus. Moreover, these franchises must provide for a gradually diminishing purchase price in case the termination is delayed, so that at the end of a period to be fixed in each franchise, the plant itself will revert to the City without cost, and the equipment will be purchased at an appraised valuation. It should be noted that franchises for additional tracks and connections of existing rapid transit roads may be unlimited as to term, subject to the right of the City to purchase, and subject to the requirement that some definite date must be established when the plant and structures, other than equipment, may be taken over by the City without payment.

Street surface franchises, which are granted by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, are limited to twenty-five years for the original period, with a possible renewal of twenty-five years. The charter is interpreted by the Board of Estimate as requiring that each franchise shall provide for the reversion of the property within the street limits at the end of the grant without cost to the City, but it is doubtful whether the charter is mandatory on this point.

2. *The System of Fares.*

Generally speaking, each operating street railway company charges a five-cent fare, with free transfers over its own lines, whether operated under lease or otherwise. The law requires that where two companies enter into voluntary agreements for the common use of tracks, they shall exchange free transfers, unless relieved from this requirement by the Public Service Commission. This requirement, however, does not apply to the joint use of tracks not established by voluntary agreement, but required under the 1,000-foot provision of the Railroad Law or other statutes.

Roughly speaking, each borough is a five-cent fare zone on the street surface railways. It is possible to ride from the post office to Kingsbridge, or from the Battery to 155th st., or from the Hudson River to the East River, in the Borough of Manhattan, for a nickel. It is not possible, however, to ride from any one point to any other in that borough for a single fare, because there are different operating systems which do not interchange transfers. In The Bronx one may ride from the Harlem River at Third ave. to the city line of Mount Vernon or Yonkers, or from the Harlem River at Washington Bridge to Westchester Creek, for a single fare. It is not yet possible to reach Pelham Bay Park for one fare.

The fare system of Brooklyn and Queens is a little more complex. On certain lines one may ride from the Brooklyn Bridge or the Williamsburg Bridge to Jackson ave., Corona Heights and Jamaica, in the Borough of Queens, for five cents, while, on the other hand, to go to Coney Island on the surface lines requires a double fare. The various Coney Island surface lines are each operated by two companies, an imaginary transfer of cars and passengers being effected at various points in the southern part of the Borough of Brooklyn, so that an extra fare can be collected. The Brooklyn Heights Railroad Company, though operating its cars from the East River through Brooklyn and Queens to North Beach and Flushing, is enabled under its old underlying franchises to charge a double fare to each of these points.

Passing over the fare system on the Brooklyn Rapid Transit lines, a person may ride for a single fare from the Queensboro Bridge to North Beach, Flushing and Jamaica, but a double fare is required for reaching Whitestone, Bayside or points south or east of Jamaica. Indeed, to travel from the Queensboro Bridge to Rockaway Beach by trolley involves an excursion through Nassau County and the payment of three separate fares.

In Richmond a person may ride from St. George to Elizabethport, Bulls Head, Village of Richmond, Midland Beach or Fort Wadsworth for a five-cent fare. Transfers are exchanged to a limited extent. The distance from St. George to the village of Richmond is only about one-half the length of the island.

On the elevated lines in Manhattan and the Bronx a uniform five-cent fare, with transfer, is granted, enabling one to travel from South Ferry to Bedford Park for a single fare. The Manhattan Railway Company is entitled, however, under its franchise, to charge a higher fare, but the five-cent rate has been in use since 1886, and the establishment of a different rate with the zone system and special low fare trains during the rush hours, as contemplated by the franchises, would be so inconvenient in operation that the five-cent rate may be regarded as safely established for the future.

The Brooklyn elevated lines also charge a uniform five-cent rate, with free transfers, subject to the qualifications that persons traveling to Coney Island on elevated trains which use in part the tracks and franchises of old steam roads are charged ten cents. It should also be noted that at certain points free transfers are exchanged from the elevated system to surface lines, even though not required by law.

On the subway, a person can ride from Atlantic avenue, Brooklyn, to Van Cortlandt Park or to Bronx Park, in The Bronx for a single fare. At the intersection of the subway and the Third Avenue Elevated Line in The Bronx free transfers are exchanged. Certain transfers at one or two points with surface lines in upper Manhattan and The Bronx are given for three cents.

An important part of the transit facilities in all five boroughs is furnished by the steam roads, which are entitled under the law to charge, with one unimportant exception, a mileage rate of three cents. As a matter of fact, however, these roads offer reduced and commutation rates, which, in a few cases for short hauls, approximate a five-cent fare.

3. Operating Systems.

The subway, which serves Manhattan and The Bronx, with one short extension into the business district of Brooklyn, is operated by the Interborough Rapid Transit Company, under contracts with the City, already briefly described. This company also operates the entire elevated railroad system of Manhattan and The Bronx, under a 999-year lease from the Manhattan Railway Company. This system includes the Second, Third, Sixth and Ninth avenue lines, furnishing three parallel lines for the full length of the Island of Manhattan, one additional line from the Battery to 59th st. and one line into The Bronx as far as Bedford Park. The Interborough Rapid Transit Company also controls, through stock ownership, the New York City Interborough Railway Company, which operates a system of street railways as yet only partly constructed, furnishing crosstown service in The Bronx, with a connection to the subway at Broadway and 181st st. in Manhattan. The Interborough Company also controls the City Island Railroad Company and the Pelham Park Railroad Company, which are now experimenting with monorail operation in Pelham Bay Park and City Island. The Interborough Company also controls, through stock ownership, the New York and Queens County Railway Company, operating in Long Island City, Woodside, Winfield, Elmhurst, Corona, Maspeth, College Point and Flushing, with the termini of its various lines at North Beach, College Point, Jamaica and the Lutheran Cemetery. The Interborough Rapid Transit Company also has joint control with the Long Island Railroad Company over the New York and Long Island Traction Company and the Long Island Electric Railway Company, which serve that portion of the Borough of Queens lying south of Fulton street and extending from the borough line at Liberty avenue, through Jamaica and south of Jamaica to Nassau County, re-entering the City again in Far Rockaway. It can be seen, therefore, that the Interborough Rapid Transit Company has substantially complete control of the urban rapid transit facilities in old New York, with an entrance into Brooklyn, and substantial control of the street surface railway systems of Queens and partial control of the street surface systems of The Bronx. The gross revenues of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company and the companies controlled by it for the year ending June 30, 1910, amounted to \$30,785,599, or 38.76 per cent. of the entire street railway revenues of the Greater City.

The operating system next in importance to that of the Interborough company is the Brooklyn Rapid Transit system, which binds together under common control seven operating companies, besides a number of leased companies. This system includes the entire elevated railroad service of Brooklyn, with one extension into Queens, and two entrances into Manhattan, over the Williamsburgh and Brooklyn bridges, and substantially the entire street railway system of Brooklyn, with the exception of the Coney Island and Brooklyn Railroad, and has important extensions into the Borough of Queens through Richmond Hill and Middle Village to Jamaica and through Maspeth, Elmhurst and Corona to North Beach and Flushing. The gross revenues of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit system for the year ending June 30, 1910, amounted to \$21,348,498, or 26.88 per cent. of the entire street railway revenues of the Greater City.

Prior to the upheaval of 1907 the entire system of surface street railways in

Manhattan and the Bronx had been linked up with the Interborough Rapid Transit Company, through the stock ownership of the Metropolitan Street Railway Company, and the Metropolitan Securities Company by the Interborough-Metropolitan Company, which also owns the stock of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company. With the appointment of the receivers in the fall of 1907, however, the active control of the big surface street railway systems of Manhattan and The Bronx went into other hands, and the systems themselves began to fall apart. The surface street railways of Manhattan and The Bronx are now divided between two principal systems and a number of more or less detached lines. The Metropolitan Street Railway system now includes lines owned or leased, which pretty well gridiron the Island of Manhattan as far north as 155th street. This system is a more or less motley combination of electric and horse car lines, pieced together by ownership, by leases having various terms to run, and by operating agreements. The gross revenues of this system for the year ending June 30, 1910, amounted to \$13,217,117, or 16.64 per cent. of the total street railway revenues of the City.

The other important operating system of street surface railways in Manhattan and The Bronx is the Third Avenue System, which consists of the Third Avenue Railroad proper, the Kingsbridge Railway, the Dry Dock, East Broadway and Battery Railroad, and the 42nd Street, Manhattanville and St. Nicholas Avenue Railway in the Borough of Manhattan, and the Union Railway of New York City, the Southern Boulevard Railroad, The Bronx Traction lines, and portions of the Westchester Electric Railroad and the Yonkers Railroad in The Bronx, together with the remainder of the Westchester Electric Railroad and the Yonkers Railroad in Westchester County. This system includes seven operating companies, besides two companies whose lines are operated under trackage agreements. The total revenues of the Third Avenue System for the year ending June 30, 1910, amounted to \$8,061,704, or 10.15 per cent. of the entire street railway revenues of the Greater City.

There are all told 33 companies operating street surface or rapid transit railroads in the City, in addition to six steam roads, one freight road with a street railway franchise, and two short electric roads operating as summer lines. Of the 33 street and rapid transit railway companies, 22 are accounted for in the four big systems already described. There remain the Hudson and Manhattan Railroad Company, operating the McAdoo tunnels; the Second Avenue Railroad Company, the 28th and 29th Streets Crosstown Railroad Company, the Central Park, North and East River Railroad Company, the South Shore Traction Company, the New York and North Shore Traction Company, the Ocean Electric Railway Company, the Coney Island and Brooklyn Railroad Company, the Van Brunt Street and Erie Basin Railroad Company, the Richmond Light and Railroad Company and the Staten Island Midland Railway Company. The total revenues of these miscellaneous street railway companies for the year ending June 30, 1910, amounted to \$6,007,992, or 7.57 per cent. of the total street railway earnings of railroad companies of the Greater City.

The steam roads referred to are the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company, the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad Company, the Long Island Railroad Company, the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, the Staten Island Rapid Transit Railway Company, and the Staten Island Railway Company. The freight road with a street railway franchise is the Bush Terminal Railroad, and the two summer lines are the Marine Railway and the Southfield Beach Railroad. It should be noted that in addition to the companies already listed, the Third Avenue Bridge Company has received a franchise to connect the Third ave. line with the Borough of Queens by way of the Queensboro Bridge, and the East River Terminal Railroad and the Jay Street Connecting Railroad have received franchises crossing streets in Brooklyn. Besides these, the Manhattan Bridge Three Cent Line and the New York Dock Railway are all seeking rights from the City.

4. *Unused Capacity of Present Facilities.*

One of the most striking facts coming to light on an examination of the transit systems of New York in actual operation, is the enormous waste of time, capital and convenience arising from the confusion and choking of transit facilities at various points. The transit systems of the City have grown up haphazard, and instead of being uniform under one general franchise or a general franchise for each of three or four great systems, each system is operated under a multitude of old grants having no particular relation to each other and not providing for adequate unification and development of facilities.

The bad results of this condition of affairs are well illustrated by the fact that for ten years or more from twenty to thirty miles of horse-car tracks have remained in the streets of the City practically unused, and in many cases in such wretched condition as to make street traffic dangerous. These rails have remained in the

streets under perpetual franchises, and the City authorities have not dared to pull them up, except in a few cases in connection with repaving. It seems ridiculous that ten years should pass in the greatest city of America without public authorities being able to remove abandoned street-car tracks from the street. It is ridiculous. A franchise system that leaves the City in this helpless condition should not be tolerated for a year. Attention is also called to the fact that on the Island of Manhattan there are still over forty miles of antiquated horse-car tracks in actual operation. This fact alone should make New York the laughing stock of the civilized world.

It has been estimated that a scientific re-routing of the surface car lines of Manhattan, without reference to divergent ownership of franchises, and assuming that existing horse-car tracks could be electrified and short stretches of new franchise acquired for the development of the lines, would practically treble the capacity of the present surface street railway facilities north and south on Manhattan island. The routes as now arranged are patched up by the different operating companies on the basis of old competing franchises, and no one in authority, either in the City government or in the street railway business, has made any consistent effort to eliminate this waste and reduce the surface car operation to a scientific system.

The City has expended \$80,000,000 or more in the construction of four bridges across the East River. One of these, the Brooklyn Bridge, has undoubtedly paid for itself in its use for transportation purposes. But even this bridge, overloaded as it already is, has had its usefulness considerably limited by the senseless plan of dumping both surface and elevated passengers all in one place at Park Row, and of picking them up again at the rush hour at night under conditions of the most barbarous and indecent crowding. Traffic conditions at the Park Row end of the bridge have for many years been a standing disgrace to the City. Some excuse may be made for the original development of these conditions, on the ground that the bridge was constructed at a time when New York and Brooklyn were separate cities and were not in a position to co-operate in the development of through transit facilities on scientific lines.

When we come to the Williamsburgh Bridge, however, and find that the same conditions are repeated, with the exception that underground terminals are provided for surface cars at the New York end of the bridge, and that an extra set of tracks enables New York cars to cross the bridge to the Brooklyn plaza, it seems almost a criminal waste of public money. This bridge, although it was constructed to support six tracks as against four on the Brooklyn Bridge, and although it has been in operation for six years, now carries less than 70 per cent as many passengers. This is due in large measure to the fact that no facilities have been provided for bringing Brooklyn cars that use the Williamsburgh Bridge into and through the business districts of Manhattan, where the people want to get off.

The Queensboro Bridge, opened less than two years ago, is an extraordinary monument to the inadequate and disjointed plans of the City with reference to transit facilities. After the construction of the bridge was commenced, the City approved the location of Sunnyside Yard, lying diagonally athwart the Queens entrance to the bridge. The bridge stands there, without any adequate plans having yet been made for its use, although its builders undoubtedly had the vague purpose of opening up the Borough of Queens, with its wide-stretching areas of comparatively cheap land, to the swarming millions of Manhattan.

Finally, the Manhattan Bridge has been opened for traffic a full year, but as yet no transit facilities have been provided on this bridge. The daily flow of traffic across the East River by bridges, ferries and tunnels, now amounts in the aggregate to about 500,000 each way. Of this number, one-third are carried over the four tracks of the Brooklyn Bridge. If the twenty tracks provided for on the other three bridges were used to the same extent, the bridges alone would carry 1,000,000 people a day across the East River and back. But the Brooklyn Bridge is undoubtedly overworked, and it appears that at least two of the other bridges, in spite of their great cost, will have to be strengthened before they can carry the loads for which they were designed.

In addition to the bridges, there are already constructed in tunnels under the East River eight railroad tracks, four of which are for use for street and rapid transit railways.

The subway owned by the City, as at present constructed, makes operation tedious and expensive, and service uncertain. The people from The Bronx are carried across to the west side of Manhattan and down the west side to 42d st., and then carried back to the east side, with the result of greatly increasing the cost of operation, choking the service where the two branches of the subway come together at 96th st., and increasing the time necessary for bringing people from The Bronx to

the lower part of Manhattan island. Unquestionably, as a matter of transit economy, the present rapid transit subway system ought to be completed so as to furnish a through east side line and a through west side line up and down Manhattan. This is conceded by everybody. The present dispute is as to whether these extensions shall be built by the operating company exclusively from its own funds or with the help of the City.

The elevated railway structures, which unfortunately cumber several of the principal avenues of Manhattan, are not now operated to advantage. The completion of the third-tracking, it is estimated, will add 60 per cent to the carrying capacity of these roads.

In Brooklyn, the development of the traffic on the elevated railway lines to their full capacity is prevented by the choking at the Brooklyn Bridge, and by the wretched operation made necessary by a crooked route in the business district of Brooklyn, as well as by the fact that some of the outlying lines, notably those on New Utrecht ave. and Gravesend ave., will have to be elevated or depressed before adequate rapid transit service can be safely furnished by them.

The Steinway tunnel, which has been lying unused for four years, since it was practically completed, like the Queensboro Bridge, ends nowhere. No provision has been made for the adequate development of transit facilities in Queens connecting with it.

In The Bronx, tracks have been laid on St. Anns ave. for eight years, but owing to a defective franchise, they have never been put into use. Also in that Borough several stretches of track belonging to the New York City Interborough Railway Company have already been in the streets for several years unused, and only recently one of these stretches was abandoned and the tracks taken up.

Everywhere in the development of the transit facilities of the greater city, chaos and waste are apparent. This appears to be due to the fact that the City and the State have gone all these years upon the assumption that the provision of rapid transit facilities for a great city was, in the main, a function for private companies, to be exploited for private gain, rather than a public function to be initiated and controlled by a strong central public authority with the power to plan a scientific system of transit and carry such a plan through to practical fruition.

5. *Suggestions as to the General Lines of Future Development.*

One of the most obvious principles that should control the development of transit facilities in a great city like New York, or, for that matter, in any great city, is to make adequate provisions by which people from all outlying sections suitable for residence, can be brought to and distributed through the business district of the city where they work, with quick and convenient service, for a single fare. Manhattan island, south of 59th st., is the great business centre of the City. It ought to be possible for people living in upper Manhattan, in The Bronx, in Queens, in Brooklyn, and even in the nearby portions of New Jersey, to reach any point in this district quickly and cheaply. The present crying need of the greater city is the admission of the transit lines of Brooklyn and Queens into and through this district. The Bronx has a population of less than half a million, and already has three rapid transit lines leading directly to lower Manhattan. Brooklyn and Queens have a population of nearly two millions, and have no street railway or rapid transit lines that go further into Manhattan than the bridge terminals, except the short extension of the present subway, which only serves to make the people of Brooklyn pay a second fare to get transit facilities which should be furnished them for the original fare which they have already paid on the Brooklyn lines.

The awful congestion of population in the Borough of Manhattan has attracted the attention of lawmakers and reformers for about fifty years, but no adequate system of transit that would decrease this congestion, or even prevent its extending northward and spreading over a greater area, has yet been devised or seriously attempted. Congestion means higher rentals and enormous land values. It is contrary to the interests of the landlords of Manhattan and The Bronx that congestion should be relieved, and it is fair to assume that a part of the egregious blundering that has been characteristic of the City's transit development is to be laid at the door of the landlord interest. Unquestionably, the transit facilities of a great city should be planned as a unit. Unquestionably they should be operated as a unit, if they can be operated not primarily for the purpose of exploiting monopoly franchises, but primarily for the development of facilities for rendering adequate service to the people of the City at a reasonable cost. Of course, a strictly private monopoly is contrary to the genius of democracy and would be intolerable in any American city, but if the experience of the past sixty years has demonstrated anything, it is that the provision of transit facilities for the people of a great city is in its nature

a public business and should be developed along lines calculated primarily to serve the public interest. If the City finds it more convenient to make use of one or more private companies for operating purposes rather than to operate the transit lines itself, the very least that it can do is to maintain absolute control, both positive and negative, of the construction of new lines, the character of the equipment and services rendered, and the rates charged.

Unquestionably, the subways and the elevated roads, but especially the subways in the heart of the City, furnish the key to an urban transit system. The control of these expensive 'downtown links will, sooner or later, bring complete control of all street railway transit facilities. It appears from a careful examination of the general transit situation, that the following points are essential to any adequate program for transit development in New York City:

1. The existing perpetual franchises must be terminated, either by forfeiture, where, through neglect or non-compliance with law, they have been made forfeitable, or through condemnation, or through purchase, or through negotiation, substituting modern short-term or indeterminate franchises for them.

2. The general rapid transit system, over the development of which the City now has substantial control, should be planned so as to utilize to their capacity the subways, bridges, and elevated railroads already constructed, and so as to bring the people from the outlying portions directly into and through the principal business district, with quick service, for a single fare.

3. An adequate system of belt lines and freight railroads, to encourage the development of manufacturing centres, with convenient access to adequate residence areas outside of the island of Manhattan, should be made a part of the general plan of transit development.

The reason most frequently advanced during the past forty years for the interest the City and the State have taken in the development of rapid transit lines in New York, has been the necessity for relieving congestion of population on Manhattan island, and yet substantially nothing has been accomplished to relieve such congestion.

It seems to be about time for a united and determined effort to make for the interests of the City at large, and of its people, to override the great special interests, whether represented by land speculators or by the present owners of street railway and rapid transit franchises, to the end that this metropolis, with all its tremendous natural advantages and acquired wealth, shall become a fit place for men of limited means to live and bring up their families.

As a practical means of bringing about the necessary control of the general transit system by the City, in addition to the adequate use of the City's rapid transit powers, the City ought to adopt a standard form of street railway franchises, with provision for the proper maintenance and development of street car facilities; with provision for building all extensions as needed; with provision for re-routing all lines so as to bring them up to their fullest capacity; with provision for a limited but semi-guaranteed return upon the actual present value of the physical property to be ascertained by appraisal; with provision for the gradual amortization of capital out of earnings; with provision for a division of net profits and with provision for an indeterminate grant which would permit the City at any time to take over the street railways for municipal operation upon paying the appraised value as fixed in the grant, plus legitimate additions and betterments, and less the accumulations of the amortization fund, or to cause the transfer of the street railways to a new company or companies upon the same terms. Having adopted such a standard form, and having secured any legislation that may be necessary to make it thoroughly practicable, the City should commence a persistent hammering to compel the companies now claiming to have perpetual franchises to come in and make settlement on the new terms. The extraordinary carelessness displayed by the companies in the past in the matter of leaving portions of their franchises unused, in the matter of abandoning portions of their routes, and in the matter of violating the terms of their franchise and the Railroad Law in other ways, has left many of them open to attack in the courts. It is more than probable that with a club in one hand and a standard indeterminate franchise, adequately protecting the honest investors, in the other, the City could, in a few years, force all of the street railway companies to come to terms and thus secure for the City the necessary control that can never be hoped for as long as the perpetual franchises remain outstanding.

This policy is practical and hopeful, for the reason that it would open the way for ultimate municipal ownership of all the lines by providing for the amortization of street railway capital out of earnings, so that the City would not be compelled to incur an enormous additional debt in taking the lines over.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HOUSING CONDITIONS, REGULATION OF BUILDINGS AND LOCATING NEW SETTLEMENTS. CHARLES SCHAEFER, JR., CHAIRMAN.

The Committee on Housing Conditions, Regulation of Buildings and Location of New Settlements at their meetings have carefully considered various problems relating to the present housing conditions and the various causes thereof, also what relief can be afforded to the present congested and densely populated centres.

Various schemes for improved housing have been placed before the Committee at the public hearings, and examples presented of European cities which have had conditions to meet, which nearly parallel those of New York City. No important improvement has been made in tenement house conditions in New York City since the enactment of the Tenement House Act of 1901.

The facilities of the Tenement House Department under the supervision of Commissioner Murphy have been placed at the disposal of the Committee, and the data thus obtained is submitted as a supplement to this report.

The report deals with the present methods of inspection which are somewhat limited, and comprises the maximum of lot areas covered, inspection of old buildings and the overcrowding of rooms, also the improvement made in altering the present dark rooms, a condition that has been grievously neglected, as it deals mainly with people who are subjected to conditions that are a serious menace to their health and public welfare, while it also affects the hospitals and almshouses as well as the insane asylums of the City and increases the annual charitable expenditures of the City. To permit conditions such as those now prevalent to continue is unworthy of the Empire City.

Sanitary conditions have been improved somewhat through the systematic inspection of the Tenement House Department. Serious evils, however, which affect the health of the community and are likely to be the cause of epidemics with all the consequences, are permitted to exist under the present Tenement House Law, Health Department and Building Code.

Congested tenement areas have been shown to exist adjacent to and commonly become part of factory territories, due to the high rental and expenses of the household, the long hours of labor and the lack of proper transit facilities. Low wages is also a cause of the overcrowding of rooms, as the Committee have found upon personal investigation that in a number of cases lodgers or boarders are taken in order to reduce the family expenditure for rent. In a large proportion of cases the presence of lodgers causes the unlawful occupation of such rooms in excess of the requirements regarding overcrowding. Many rooms which under the present law are habitable are really unfit for human occupancy and cannot be made fit except by radical structural changes. In many such apartments a further menace to health is sanctioned by permitting the manufacture of articles of clothing, flowers, etc., through which disease and possible epidemics can be spread not only in the City and territories adjacent to the City, but throughout the country, as was shown by the partly finished articles in the various apartments visited. The present factory law, therefore, encourages congestion in allowing such manufacture in tenements which are occupied not only by the tenants, but also by outside help either hired or brought in to assist those occupying the apartment and to add to the existing unsanitary conditions.

Congested districts usually furnish these conditions under which labor of this class is cheapest and most plentiful. The average rental of such apartments and the family income are appended as a further report.

These evils are not especially confined to any particular borough, but to certain areas in each borough which are noted for the high death rates, which is one of the inevitable results of such conditions which are actually legal under the present laws.

The Committee have had presented to it various methods adopted by European cities in dealing with similar problems and regulating living conditions by laws designed to spread the population over a greater area, as well as to enable them to reach their places of employment within a reasonable time and allow them to live in surroundings that promote health and happiness. The population of limited areas of Manhattan equals that of many large American cities.

The room overcrowding has also been referred to, and this is found not alone in tenement houses, but also in private dwellings known as one and two-family houses. Such room overcrowding exists in one and two-family house sections which are undergoing changes, and the standards enforced in tenement houses should also be enforced in one and two-family houses, since the dangers of room or apartment overcrowding, such as infection and spread of disease, are nearly as serious in one and two-family houses as in multiple family tenements.

The present building laws also permit rooms in one and two-family houses without any means of ventilation to the outer air.

The increase in rental thus shown is due to several causes but mainly the following:

The increase of population requiring housing in limited areas, which naturally creates an increase in land values. Increase in cost of materials used in the construction of buildings, and increase in the cost of labor employed in the erection of buildings for general housing, have their effect in reducing the supply at moderate cost of new buildings, suitable for those of small incomes. To make possible a low density of population, land must be cheap, and this can be accomplished only by bringing much land into the market by transit and also by distributing factories, or by restricting the height and number of buildings, or by a combination of these.

The cost of construction in the past ten years has, according to reports and investigations, increased from an average of 10 cents per cubic foot to 16 cents per cubic foot for the ordinary type of a tenement house generally built. This would show an approximate increase in the cost of construction of about 50 per cent. While this seems excessive, it must be borne in mind that the type of house now constructed is far superior to that built 10 years ago. A certain percentage of increase in cost of construction is due to the demand in the new type of tenement for a better and more progressive apartment; therefore, the actual increase in cost of construction, considering the convenience now offered, can be safely assumed at 25 to 30 per cent., and this is largely due to the increased cost of the various materials of a building.

Land values have also increased. This increase, together with the increased cost of construction, have increased the capital invested in buildings, and as the owner assumes that he is entitled to a fair return on the investment, he is inclined to demand higher rentals.

This increase in land values, therefore, has an influence in the decided advance in the rental value of buildings, while labor has also shared slightly in the general increase, but not proportionately to the cost of construction or to the largest expense, the increased value of land.

OLD TYPES OF TENEMENTS.

The old type of tenement house has a large number of dark rooms, due to the narrowness of the light shafts or vent courts and the height of the buildings, and a larger proportion of these are located in the older or more densely populated sections of Manhattan than in the other boroughs, and are adjacent to the still older type of tenement which have the interior light or vent shafts, covered with a skylight, and others that have none whatsoever, but borrow the light for the interior rooms from the outer rooms through windows far too small to properly ventilate the outer rooms themselves. That is one of the most serious problems that the Committee have been confronted with, and it seems impossible to solve this until the interior rooms can be so arranged as to open upon a properly ventilated shaft or a court open to the sky. The present narrow courts also demand attention so as to afford a proper method of ventilation by means of a properly constructed intake or duct to afford the passage of air from the street or outer air.

BUILDINGS OTHER THAN TENEMENTS.

The Building Code contains no specific requirement as to the percentage of lot space, to be left unoccupied by certain classes of buildings, and it is possible to cover an entire lot of land adjacent to a tenement house with a factory or warehouse and thereby to rob the tenement not only of light, but of ventilation, causing the yards and shafts to become enclosed ducts.

In certain blocks in the Borough of Manhattan absolutely no through ventilation can be had by reason of the various buildings surrounding the tenement houses on such areas.

It is permissible under the law to construct an eight or ten-story building adjacent to a two-foot 8-inch shaft 12 or 14 feet in length, which is the only means of light and ventilation to three and possibly four interior rooms.

The buildings known as apartment houses under the classification of tenements have not been investigated, for the reason that most of them have been constructed under the Tenement House Law of 1901, and are known as New Law Houses, and where renting for \$6 and over per room do not demand the inquiries of the Commission.

However, in many New Law Tenements located in the more densely populated sections of the City, although the general conditions of lighting and ventilation have been improved, there is much room overcrowding due to taking in of lodgers to reduce the general family expenses. Section 111 of the Tenement House Law attempts

to prevent this by specifying the amount of cubic air space to be provided as 400 cubic feet for an adult and 200 cubic feet for a minor under 12. Although this remains a law, it has not been found possible by the Tenement House Department to enforce it effectively. The sanitary conditions of halls, stairways, courts and yards, etc., should also be considered, since the Commission have found upon the various visits many foul and improperly cared for spaces and passageways. Whereas section 110 of the Tenement House Law requires a janitor to reside in the house where there are more than eight families, a number have been found to have no care whatsoever and tending to become detrimental to life and health. This section of the law affects seriously the more congested sections of our City. The present law as to the percentage of lot area that may be occupied requires further investigation than it has been possible for the Committee to give to the question, particularly with relation to the erection of buildings in the now congested sections of the City.

In the more sparsely settled sections of the various boroughs it is not necessary to have as large a percentage of the lot area occupied by buildings as necessitated by the high cost of land in Manhattan and parts of The Bronx and Brooklyn, neither should the buildings be as high, while detached or open building should be encouraged wherever possible. In the judgment of the Committee the zones or districts to which these regulations should apply should be determined by some commission with adequate funds to make studies of land values for the future development of the entire City. This work should preferably be done by the Municipal Art Commission and Board of Estimate and Apportionment, whose report and plan for the City should be made mandatory by statute. The Committee have made suggestions merely regarding the height of buildings, as their primary task is to prevent congestion of population. Revision of the Building Code is also essential. Legislation should moreover be enacted immediately, providing that where factories or lofts or other manufacturing structures are erected upon any block in which at present 50 per cent. of the buildings are used or occupied as tenement houses, space shall be left in the rear of such building or structure equal to the depth of the yard required for a tenement house of equal height, or of a depth at least one-tenth the height of the building with a minimum of ten feet. This is necessary to maintain the through block circulation of air required and for the light and ventilation of tenements.

It is necessary at the beginning of this report to distinguish between "concentration" of population and "congestion" of population, the former term implying the presence within a limited area of a large population, the latter term the overloading of land. Thus it would be possible to have in the 209,218 acres of Greater New York 10,460,900 people with a density of only 50 to the acre throughout the City, or more than twice the present population. This would represent marked concentration of population, but with any even distribution of population throughout the five boroughs would not involve any congestion of population. New York City might have a population of even a much larger number within its present boundaries without any serious congestion.

Congestion of population is a term about the meaning of which there is undoubtedly great difference of opinion. In the report of this Committee it will be used as indicative of conditions of population which are conducive to unsanitary or immoral living in special sections of the City. These sections will be spoken of as "congested sections."

It may at the outset be said that there is no legal limit set to the population which may exist in the City or in particular sections thereof, with two exceptions:

First—By the Factory Law at least 250 cubic feet of air space must be provided for each worker.

Second—The Tenement House Law requires that rooms in tenement houses shall not be so overcrowded that there shall be afforded less than 400 cubic feet of air space to each adult and 200 cubic feet of air to each child under twelve years of age occupying such rooms.

While there are thus no legal limits set to the number of people who may either work or live in the City or any particular section thereof, the structural requirements of the Building Law combined with certain requirements of the Tenement House Law limit the population which may be housed in the most congested sections, if these laws are complied with.

The limits are:

(1) A density of population at the minimum of 1,300 to the acre, including within that area half the acreage of the streets upon which the houses front in buildings six stories in height.

(2) A floor area of 260 square feet and a space of 2,340 cubic feet for each living apartment; that is, two rooms 7x10 feet, and one room 10x12, with a height of 9 feet clear in all rooms from floor to ceiling.

(3) A lot occupancy of 90 per centum of corner lots and 70 per centum of interior lots.

(4) In six-story tenements under the existing laws it is possible that only one room out of four will obtain an adequate supply of sunshine.

These laws have a practical effect, however, only upon tenement houses. Thus it is possible to cover an entire plot of land adjacent to a tenement house by a factory or warehouse of almost any height and thus deprive a tenement not only of light, but of ventilation, by causing the yards or shafts to become enclosed ducts. In certain blocks in the Borough of Manhattan no through ventilation can be had by reason of the fact that these various buildings surround the tenement houses.

These limits to the population and to the character of the tenement houses have been, it must be remembered, operative only since 1901. As the Tenement House Law passed that year was not retroactive in effect the then existing conditions of congestion of population so far as they exceeded the limits fixed by that law were not changed, with the result that in many sections conditions then existing are still found. Many thousands of the old type of tenement houses are still standing in three boroughs with many dark rooms, due to the narrowness of light or vent shafts and courts, and the height of the buildings. A large proportion of this class of houses is located in the older and more densely populated sections of Manhattan. Some of these houses have the interior light or vent shafts covered with skylights, and others borrow the light for the interior rooms from the outer rooms through windows far too small properly to ventilate the outer rooms themselves.

These efforts to limit by law congestion of population have, however, in many cases and in the most congested sections been nullified by overcrowding rooms beyond the legal limits, and this overcrowding of rooms is to be found both in the tenement houses of the old and new types, and also in the rooms of one and two-family houses, which under the present building laws need not be provided with any means of ventilation to the outer air.

The requirement as to cubic air space which shall be provided for each person is so low that the seven (7) by ten (10) foot room which is permitted under the Tenement House Law is legally adequate for one adult and one minor under twelve.

It would be possible to house practically all of the probable population of New York City with a normal increase for several decades in three-family tenements and two-family houses, and a large proportion of the families could have at least a small garden. In 1901 the greatest density of population in any borough of London was 182.3 per acre, and for Greater London 14.8.

Mr. Lawrence Veiller, a well-known housing expert, wrote in 1905:

"No conception of the existing conditions can be obtained from any general statements. To say that the lower East Side of New York is the most densely populated spot in the habitable globe gives no adequate idea of the real conditions. To say that in one section of the City the density of population is 1,000 to the acre and that the greatest density of population in the most densely populated part of Bombay is but 759 to the acre, in Prague 485 to the acre, in Paris 434, in London 365, in Glasgow 350, in Calcutta 204, gives one no adequate realization of the state of affairs. No more does it, to say that in many city blocks on the East Side there is often a population of from 2,000 to 3,000 persons, a population equal to that of a good-sized village. The only way that one can understand the real conditions is to go down into the streets of these districts and see the thousands of persons thronging them and making them impassable. So congested have become the conditions of some of the quarters of this City, that it is not an exaggeration to say that there are more people living there than the land or the atmosphere can with safety sustain. *The limits have not only been reached, but have long been passed.*"

In his book, "The Housing Problem," published in 1910, Mr. Veiller makes the serious charge: "The conditions in New York are without parallel in the civilized world. In no city of Europe, not in Naples nor in Rome, neither in London nor in Paris, neither in Berlin, Vienna or Buda-Pesth, not in Constantinople, nor in St. Petersburg, not in ancient Edinburgh nor modern Glasgow, not in heathen Canton nor Bombay, are to be found such conditions as prevail in modern enlightened twentieth century, Christian New York.

"In no other city is the mass of the working population housed as it is in New York, in tall tenement houses, extending up into the air fifty or sixty feet, and stretching for miles in every direction as far as the eye can reach. In no other city are there the same appalling conditions with regard to lack of light and air in the homes of the poor. In no other city is there as great congestion and overcrowding. In no other city do the poor so suffer from excessive rents; in no other city are the conditions of city life so complex. Nowhere are the evils of modern life so varied, nowhere are the problems so difficult of solution."

The Commission have investigated many phases and conditions of this congestion. It is apparent that the congestion to which Mr. Veiller referred so strongly in 1905 is increasing in the sections of the City which had even in that year the greatest density of population per acre.

1. *Density of Population Per Acre in Large Areas.*

In 1905, 742,135 people lived on 2,418.5 acres south of 14th street in Manhattan at a density for the entire area of 306.8 per acre. Between 1905 and 1910 the population of this area had increased by 27,165 to a total of 769,300 and the density per acre had increased by 11.2 per acre to 318 per acre. In 1905 18.48 per cent. of the total population of New York City were living on 1.15 per cent. of the total area of the City, and by 1910 this had fallen to 16.13 per cent. of the City's population, in spite of the fact that the increase in density of the population per acre had increased 11.2 in the five years. This increase of population in these five years was five times as great as the total number of persons per acre in 1910, in both the boroughs of Queens and Richmond, and this, although during these five years scores of high multiple-family tenements were torn down for public improvements, notably the approaches of the two bridges, the Manhattan and the Williamsburg.

In 1905 slightly over one-sixth of the City's population were living below 14th street in Manhattan on one eighty-seventh of the City's area, in 1910 slightly under one-sixth of the City's entire population. It must be borne in mind, too, that in this district are located factories employing nearly one-half of the total number of workers in factories in the City and a large proportion of the office buildings of the City.

In 1910, 375,316 people, 7.86 per cent., nearly one-thirteenth of the City's population, lived in the 10th, 11th and 17th Wards of Manhattan at a density of over 600 to the acre, 64,651 people, or 1.34 per cent. of the City's population, lived in the 13th Ward of Manhattan at an average density of 591.3 to the acre, 102,108 people, 2.11 per cent. of the City's population, lived in the Seventh Ward of Manhattan at an average density of 495.6 per acre, 1,450,838 people, 30.43 per cent., nearly one-third of the City's population, lived in the 12th, 15th, 18th and 22d Wards of Manhattan, and the 10th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 19th 25th and 28th Wards of Brooklyn at a density of 100 to 149 to the acre; 1,001,023 people, 20.99 per cent., approximately one-fifth of the City's population, lived in the Second and Third Wards of Manhattan, the 29th, 30th, 31st and 32d Wards of Brooklyn and in the Boroughs of Richmond, Queens and The Bronx at a density of less than 25 to the acre. The 10th, 11th and 17th Wards of Manhattan had an average density of population per acre of over 600, the highest being the 17th, with 647.8, while the 13th had 593.1, while the Seventh had 495.3. Three Wards in Manhattan had a density of between 200 and 299 and the 16th Ward in Brooklyn 278.8 per acre, while no other wards had a density of over 200 to the acre, although five wards in Brooklyn had a density of over 140 per acre. The maximum density of Queens, in the First Ward was only 132.

Population of Each Borough in New York in 1900, 1905 and 1910, and Density Per Acre and Increase from 1905 to 1910.

Borough.	Population, 1900.	Density Per Acre.	Population, 1905.	Density Per Acre.	Population, 1910.	Density Per Acre.	Density Per Acre.
Manhattan ..	1,850,093	131.8	2,112,380	149.8	2,331,542	166.1	15.6
The Bronx ..	200,507	7.7	271,630	10.4	430,980	16.5	6.1
Brooklyn ...	1,166,582	23.48	1,358,686	27.27	1,634,351	32.89	5.5
Queens	152,999	1.8	198,240	2.3	204,041	2.46	0.4
Richmond ...	67,021	1.8	72,845	1.9	85,969	2.34	0.3
Greater N. Y.	3,437,202	16.4	4,013,781	19.1	4,766,883	22.7	3.5

2. *Block Density Per Acre in Different Boroughs.*

The density of population per acre of a ward or any large area may be extremely misleading, both because the areas of wards vary so greatly, as from 78 acres in the Second Ward of Manhattan to 36,600 acres in the Fourth Ward of Queens, and because a small part of a ward may be very closely built up with high tenements while the larger part of the ward is entirely unimproved, and this fact reduces the density for the entire area to a minimum most misleading.

The density of population per acre in blocks is probably the most accurate measure of actual density.

There were in Manhattan, in 1905, 122 blocks with a density of 750 to the acre, and 30 blocks with a density of 1,000 or over to the acre, counting in the acreage of such blocks one-half of the area of the bounding streets.

In 1905 the average density per acre of all these blocks was 967; in 1910 it had fallen to 952, a decrease of 15 per acre; the population of all the blocks had fallen from 308,396 in 1905 to 303,839 in 1910—that is, 4,557. Fifty-three of the blocks showed a decrease in population, the most marked case being the block bounded by West 61st st. and 62d st., Amsterdam and West End aves., whose population fell in the five years from 6,173 to 3,501, a total reduction of 2,672, or nearly three-fifths of the total increase in population of the entire 122 blocks. The density of population of this block fell from 1,145 to 649 per acre, a reduction of 496 per acre. The block with the largest increase in population is that bounded by Grand, Broome, Ridge and Pitt sts., whose population increased, from 1905 to 1910, from 1,843 to 2,552—that is, by 709, and whose density of population increased from 910 to 1,260, or 350 per acre. This block is in the centre of the congested East Side.

Of the fifty-three blocks, the population of which decreased from 1905 to 1910,

The density per acre of 23 blocks decreased under 50 per acre.

The density per acre of 14 blocks decreased from 50 to 100 per acre.

The density per acre of 7 blocks decreased from 101 to 200 per acre.

The density per acre of 1 block decreased from 201 to 300 per acre.

The density per acre of 4 blocks decreased from 300 to 400 per acre.

The density per acre of 4 blocks decreased over 400 per acre.

Of the sixty-five blocks, whose population increased from 1905 to 1910,

The density per acre of 28 blocks increased under 50 per acre.

The density per acre of 22 blocks increased from 50 to 100 per acre.

The density per acre of 9 blocks increased from 101 to 200 per acre.

The density per acre of 5 blocks increased from 200 to 301 per acre.

The density per acre of 1 block increased over 400 per acre.

The density of population of one block remained stationary and of three is unknown for 1910.

Of the 114 blocks below 14th st. which had in 1905 a density of 750 or over per acre, the population of 63 increased, and of 51 decreased from 1905 to 1910. The total population in these blocks decreased from 1905 to 1910 by 2,393, while the total population south of 14th st. increased 27,165.

Only 4 of the 122 blocks which had in 1905 a density of over 750 to the acre are above 14th st.

A study of the changes in density of population from 1905 to 1910 of 28 important blocks in the lower part of The Bronx, which had in 1905 a population of 1,000 or over, is even more significant, because here many of these very blocks are blocks practically unimproved, and within walking distance of some are scores of acres of vacant land.

In 1905 the total population of these 28 blocks was 37,241; in 1910 it had increased to 42,897, a gain of 5,656. The average density per acre of all the blocks was 360 in 1905, and 414 in 1910, an increase of 54 per acre, or over one-seventh in the five years. The population of 20 blocks just three-quarters increased during this period; that of eight decreased.

Three blocks had in 1910 a density per acre of over 600 as follows: The block bounded by Kelly st., Westchester, Wales and Robbins aves., of 633; the block bounded by East 146th and 147th sts., St. Anns and Brook aves., of 610; the block bounded by East 136th and 137th sts., Willis ave. and Brown place, of 607. The population of the first of these increased in the five years from 1,227 to 1,633, and the population of the block bounded by 140th and 141st sts., Willis and Brook aves., increased from 1,601 to 2,298—that is, by 697, or over two-fifths. The increase in density of only eight of the blocks was under 50 per cent.; of seven between 50 and 100; of four between 101 and 200, and of one over 200, while the decrease in density of six out of seven blocks was under 50 per acre. Several blocks in The Bronx are rapidly becoming as densely populated as the great majority of the congested blocks in Manhattan, and these Bronx blocks are also occupied chiefly by artisans and factory operatives and laborers.

The Sixteenth Ward of Brooklyn had in 1905 a population of 61,136, with an average density per acre of 249.3. By 1910 the population increased to 68,253; the density to 278.8 per acre.

There were in 1905 23 blocks in the ward with a density of 300 per acre or over. The average density per acre of all of these blocks in 1905 was 365; in 1910 it was 401, an increase of 36 per acre, or about 9 per cent. Six of the 23 blocks had a density of between 300 to 350 per acre; eight of between 351 and 400; five of between 401 and 450; two of between 451 and 500, while the block bounded by Boerum, McKibben and Humboldt sts. and Graham ave., had a density of 540 per acre, and the block bounded by Boerum st., McKibben st., Bushwick ave. and Humboldt ave., a density of 495 per acre. The same fluctuation in density of individual blocks occurred

in this period as in the blocks in Manhattan which had in 1905 a density of 750 per acre or over, but the net density of population per acre of the 244.8 acres of the ward, the most densely populated in Brooklyn, nevertheless increased by nearly 30 people per acre.

Of the 23 blocks under consideration, nearly half decreased in density, but nine of them by under 50 per acre and only two by over 50; none by over 100. The block bounded by Boerum and McKibben and Humboldt sts. and Graham ave. increased in density by 174 per acre.

Six of the 23 blocks increased under 50 per acre, three between 50 and 100, and three between 101 and 200. A large proportion of most of these blocks have only a few high tenements, so that the maximum probable density of many is at least 600 to the acre if the present development continues.

3. Room Overcrowding.

There has not been any systematic effort to prevent room overcrowding in the City, but the data as to the extent and seriousness of this evil has been secured from various reliable sources. The Tenement House Commissioners, at the request of this Commission, prosecuted an investigation in a few crowded blocks and found the following conditions; parents, children, and three to eight adult boarders, occupied apartments of two, three and four rooms.

Number of Rooms Having Indicated Number of Occupants—(a Minor Under 12 is Counted as Half an Adult).

Occupants	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	$3\frac{1}{2}$	4	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Number of rooms.....	—	20	6	58	30	90	15	50	3
Occupants	5	$5\frac{1}{2}$	6	$6\frac{1}{2}$	7	$7\frac{1}{2}$	8	$8\frac{1}{2}$	10
Number of Rooms	11	2	9	1	5	—	1	—	2

Extent of Overcrowding in Rooms Occupied. Number of Persons in Each Room, Over $1\frac{1}{2}$ Per Room. (A Minor Under 12 is Counted as Half an Adult.)

Occupants	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	$3\frac{1}{2}$	4	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Number of rooms.....	56	28	82	15	51	3	9	3	9
Occupants	5	$5\frac{1}{2}$	6	7	$7\frac{1}{2}$	8	$8\frac{1}{2}$	10	—
Number of rooms.....	1	5	1	—	—	—	2	—	—

An investigation, however, made in February, 1910, by the "Settlements" in various sections of the Borough of Manhattan and some of the congested districts of Brooklyn, showed that of 91 families reported, less than one-half had two occupants or less per room, while one-fourth had $2\frac{1}{2}$ occupants per room, one-seventh had three, one-ninth had $3\frac{1}{2}$, and one-eighth had 4 occupants to a room, or over. Two cases were discovered of six occupants in a room; one in a basement, and one in an attic. One-sixth of the families reported upon were living in two-room apartments; one-half in three-room apartments. In each case the number of rooms in the apartment included the kitchen. The families investigated were typical self-supporting families. The Nurses Settlement on Henry st. reported that 95 per cent of the families which they knew have three occupants per room or over. This overcrowding existed notwithstanding the fact that from 5 to 15 per cent of the apartments available are, in most parts of Manhattan, constantly vacant.

4. Intensive Use of Land.

(a) Proportion of area of blocks covered by buildings in 1908:

In Manhattan, over one-fourth of the blocks were covered solidly by buildings or had less than 11 per cent of the area not covered, and over half of the blocks had less than 21 per cent of the area not covered by buildings.

In the built-up sections of Brooklyn, nearly one-fifth of the blocks were covered solidly by buildings, or had less than 11 per cent of the site not covered, and over one-third of the blocks had less than 21 per cent of the site not covered, while two-thirds of the blocks had not over one-third of the area devoted to courts and yards.

In the built-up section of the 23d Ward of The Bronx, one-fourteenth of the blocks were solidly covered by buildings, or had less than 11 per cent not covered, and nearly one-fifth had less than 21 per cent of the area not covered, while one-half of the blocks had 30 per cent of the area in courts and yards.

(b) Use of land below Chambers st., New Chambers st. and James slip, in Manhattan. How the area below Chambers st. is utilized:

About two-thirds of the area below Chambers st. was covered by buildings in 1908. Of this covered area, nearly one-third was covered by buildings five stories high; nearly one-tenth was covered by buildings six stories high; nearly one-eleventh was covered by buildings twelve stories or over.

(c) Cubage or volume of buildings:

Mayor McClellan's first Building Code Revision Commission recommended that no building should exceed a cubage or volume of more than 174 times the area of the lot, that is, that it should not exceed a volume equivalent to 174 times the area of the lot or a solid building of fourteen stories covering the entire lot.

In 1907 there were, however, below Chambers st. eight office buildings having a cubage or volume of over 250 times the area of the lot, and eleven office buildings having a cubage of over 200 times the area of the lot, while one had a cubage of 313 times the area, an excess of 139, or more than three-quarters over the cubage recommended.

5. *Height of Tenements.*

There were in 1908, out of a total of 71,922 tenements in Manhattan, 8,761 tenements six stories high or over; in the 23d Ward of The Bronx, out of 12,181 tenements, 1,812 tenements five stories high or over; and in the 1st to 7th, inclusive, 9th, 10 to 17, inclusive, and the 20th to 26th, inclusive, Wards of Brooklyn, comprising most of the built-up section, out of 63,649 tenements, 723, or about one-ninetieth, five stories or over. (Many tenements are six stories high in front and a lesser number in the rear, and each number of stories is counted.)

Of the tenements for which plans were filed in 1909 and 1910, in Manhattan, out of a total of 667 only about one-sixth (109) were under six stories high.

In The Bronx, out of a total of 1,855, nearly two-thirds (1,158) were five stories or over.

In Brooklyn, out of a total of 1,563, only about one-thirtieth (54), were five stories or over.

In Queens, out of a total of 443, only one was over four stories. Of the five tenements in Richmond, two were two stories, two were three stories, and one over six stories.

Of the total 4,533 tenements for which plans were filed in New York, 613 were six stories; 1,137, about one-fourth, five stories; and 2,649, about three-fifths, four stories high or less, more than one-fourth being three stories or less.

6. *Multiple Family Tenements.*

Tenements of this type are for the accommodation of several families, and of these tenements plans were filed in 1909 and 1910 as follows: In Manhattan, of 667 only 272 provided for four families or less per floor. In The Bronx, out of 1,855, only 438, or approximately one-fourth, provided for over four families per floor, while 855 provided for two families or less per floor, approximately one-half of the total number. In Brooklyn, out of 1,563 tenements, 1,345, or over four-fifths, provided for two families or less per floor, and 321, or one-fifth, only one family per floor, although there were in Brooklyn 164 tenements which provided for four families per floor or over. Out of 443 tenements in Queens, 422 provided for two families or less per floor, and the largest number of families to the floor was four, in eleven tenements.

In Richmond, two tenements provided for one family to the floor, and three for two families.

In New York City as a whole, out of 4,533 tenements for which plans were filed in 1909 and 1910, 485, or approximately one-tenth, provided for one family per floor; 2,641 provided for two families or less per floor; approximately one-fifth provided for five families per floor or more.

7. *Heights of Buildings Other Than Tenements in 1907 and 1908.*

In Manhattan, out of 17,357 buildings used for all purposes, except tenements, nearly seven-eighths were six stories high or less, and only one-hundredth were 13 stories high or over. In Brooklyn, out of 10,439 such buildings, only about one-hundredth were over six stories high. In the 23d Ward of The Bronx, out of 2,735 such buildings, only 14 were over six stories high.

8. *Office Construction.*

There were in office buildings below Chambers st., New Chambers st. and James slip in 1908, allowing 110 square feet to each occupant, accommodations for nearly 130,000 people.

In office buildings constructed in 1908 there were provided accommodations below Cortlandt st. and Maiden lane for 15,575 persons, allowing 110 square feet to each occupant. A single building, however, such as the City Investing Building or the Hudson Terminal Buildings, provides accommodations for from 8,000 to 10,000 people.

As one measure in solving the housing problem, the creation of workingmen's colonies has been tried by several American cities. Bearing in mind the particular needs of each section and the present ownership of land in New York City, this method can only be referred to by the Committee as a possible means of interesting private capital, as is now proposed by one of our larger railroad corporations in establishing colonies adjacent to their yards or works. Their plan is outlined in the following statement:

"Extract from the 'American Contractor.'"—Workingmen's Colonies.

"The announcement recently made by the Pennsylvania Railroad that a number of houses to be occupied by its employees will be erected in Harrison, N. J., and in Sunnyside, L. I., has called attention to the movement inaugurated in European cities for the proper housing of the working classes. This movement has made rapid strides in England, and 'garden cities' have sprung up in the last few years in nearly all industrial centres.

"It is not known whether the Pennsylvania Railroad intends to build entire cities for its employees or whether the project of erecting houses is limited to a certain number. New York builders have been asked to submit estimates for certain types of cottages, and as the officials of the railroad never furnish information until all arrangements for the carrying out of a project have been completed, the details of the housing plans will not be made public for the present. It was stated last week, says the 'New York Sun,' at the offices of the company, that the real estate committee of the Board of Directors is considering the matter and will report at the next meeting.

"London, Birmingham and other large cities have within the last two or three years made attempts to solve the housing problem. The town planning act passed by Parliament last year gave an impetus to the movement, and garden cities, founded either by large employers or by societies, are flourishing. The new movement must not be confounded with colonies and communities started by Pourrier, Rapp, Owen and other economists and religious teachers, who based their undertakings on the subordination of individual life.

"The latest scheme for the development of towns is a mild form of paternalism. An expression of the Right Hon. William Kendrick, who is interested in the 'Harborne Tenants' on this question, gives the aim of the movement in brief as follows: 'Employers of labor are answerable for calling together in a limited space many thousands of operatives. If they have any regard for the kind of houses the employees live in they have a great responsibility, and they ought to come forward and help in this work. They should not leave it to the City Council to purchase a little space here and there at enormous expense. They want City councillors and suburban district councils to have the power to say to building speculators. "You shall not crowd houses irrespective of decency and the health of the children and inhabitants of the houses." In the meantime let them be up and doing, for ere the Government does this they might have to wait some time.'

"The Hampstead Gardens and the Bourneville Village Trust are the largest and most successful of these towns. The idea carried out in this scheme has not as yet been copied on this side of the ocean, but signs are not wanting that American cities will witness within a short time a similar movement of town building. The socialistic, or rather, co-operative, theory underlying the erection of houses belonging to all and to no one in particular has appealed to the officials of Milwaukee, who have despatched an emissary to Europe to study the movement and to return prepared for the management of a similar project to be fostered and fathered by the municipality.

"The Hampstead Garden Trust furnishes workmen employed in London a cottage with a garden at a rental considerably less than they would be compelled to pay for a small flat in the city. The fare from Hampstead Garden to London is two pence. Different parts of the town are set aside for playgrounds. Houses are never sold, only leased at a rental of \$150 to \$175 a year. More than seventy acres are used for workmen's cottages, while the remainder are set aside for shops, villas and larger houses standing in an acre or two of pleasure ground. All tenants are joint owners. It is claimed for the system that in principle it solves the question of the unearned increment, for all the gain under this head does not go to the shareholders, who are the tenants, but by swelling the surplus profits it necessarily benefits all the tenant members of the trust in the shape of increased dividends on their rentals.

"The Bourneville Village Trust, which was founded by an employer in Birmingham for the purpose of reducing the cost of living of his workmen and providing

them with sanitary and comfortable houses, has been the most successful of the enterprises. The founder, George Cadbury, stated in the deed by which he established the trust that he was desirous of securing to workers in factories some of the advantages of outdoor village life, with opportunities for the natural and healthful occupation of cultivating the soil.

"The houses and land in Bourneville Village are not sold outright. The property is leased to families for a term of 999 years. Covenants in the leases secure the accomplishment of the purpose of the founder. The village is administered by trustees, and the income, whether from rents or any other source, is employed in laying out the estate, building more houses and purchasing other estates to be developed in the same way as Bourneville. Care has been taken in laying out the village that it shall be picturesque as well as healthful. There are about six houses to the acre and the majority of the houses have two sitting rooms, a kitchen and three bedrooms. The cheapest houses are let at \$1.10 and the largest houses at \$1.90 a week. Water rents and sewer taxes are paid by the tenants."

Insanitary Buildings.

A report on the demolition of insanitary buildings and proceedings in such cases is attached as an appendix to the general report, and shows the methods and powers now vested in the several departments of New York City, the abatement of such nuisances, and the powers and procedure of other American cities.

The investigations of the committee have been seriously hampered by the lack of funds required to make full and complete studies and to submit such data and maps as would illustrate more clearly than compiled statistics the conclusions they have reached. It would seem, therefore, that the appointment of permanent commissions or boards empowered to investigate the conditions of our city fully and provided with the necessary office equipment and help required to take up the matters in detail is the only logical solution of the problem, as ordinary committee work served only to barely scratch the surface of the problem and not to delve into the matter fully.

The committee have, therefore, recommended the creation of several such boards.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE FOR RELIEVING THE PRESENT CONGESTION AND PREVENTING FUTURE CONGESTION OF POPULATION.

1. *Restriction of the Height or Volume of Buildings Other Than Tenements.*

(a) That no building hereafter to be erected in Manhattan, south of the south side of 181st street, shall exceed a cubage or volume of 174 times the area of the lot, and that no building be altered to exceed this cubage. This means that no building shall exceed a height of 174 feet covering the entire area of the lot. If each story were 12 feet in height this would permit of a height of 14 stories with a basement, which would not in any way confiscate existing land values, since a large part of the values of the site are due to accessibility to the multitudes of population on thoroughfares for stores and exchange purposes on the first floor.

(b) That no building hereafter to be erected in any part of New York City except in Manhattan, south of the south side of 181st street, shall exceed a cubage or volume of 120 times the area of the lot, and that no building in this district shall be altered to exceed this cubage. This means a restriction to about ten stories covering the entire area of the lot.

(c) That every building over four stories or 50 feet in height to be occupied as a factory, loft, warehouse or other miscellaneous buildings be of fireproof construction, and may not have any woodwork.

(d) That when the height of any building except one to be used as a factory, loft, warehouse or other miscellaneous buildings does not exceed one hundred feet (instead of twelve stories, nor more than one hundred and fifty feet, as provided in the present building code), that the doors and windows and their frames, the trims the casings, the interior finish when filled solid at the back with fireproof material, and the floor boards and sleepers directly underneath may be of wood.

(e) That when the height of any fireproof building except one to be used as a factory, loft, warehouse or other miscellaneous building exceeds one hundred and fifty feet, that no wood may be used in the floors or as sleepers even if treated by some process now approved by the Board of Buildings to render them fireproof, nor for the inside window frames and sash doors, trim and other interior finish as permitted by the present building code.

(f) That no factory or loft building hereafter to be erected shall exceed a cubage or volume of one hundred and thirty-two times the area of the lot, and that no building hereafter altered to exceed this cubage or volume shall be used for factory or loft purposes.

2. *Restriction Upon the Lot Occupancy of Buildings Other Than Tenements.*

(a) That at the rear of every factory and loft building hereafter erected, there shall be provided a yard open and unobstructed from the street level to the sky across the entire width of the lot and of a depth equal to one-tenth of the height of the building, but in no case less than one-tenth of the depth of the lot, or if this lot be under one hundred feet in depth, of a depth of less than ten feet, and that no premises or building hereafter erected shall be converted to or occupied as a factory or loft that does not conform to this requirement.

(b) That there shall be in addition to the area of a lot now required to be unoccupied a yard extending across the rear of lot of every dwelling to be occupied by more than one family equal to 10 per cent. of the depth of the lot unobstructed from the ground level to the sky, and all rooms of such dwellings shall open and ventilate upon a street, yard or court not less than 4 feet wide or upon an offset to such court the depth of which does not exceed the width of same.

3. *Restrictions Upon the Height of Tenements.*

(a) That no tenement house hereafter erected shall exceed in height the width of the widest street upon which it stands, and that no tenement shall be increased in height, so that it shall exceed in height the width of the widest street upon which it stands.

(b) That no tenement house hereafter erected in the City of New York, except in the Borough of Manhattan south of the south side of 181st street, shall exceed four stories in height, except that for every fifteen per centum of the lot area left unoccupied, less than the maximum occupancy now legally permissible, an additional story shall be permitted and a tenement house may be five stories high without being of fireproof construction if it occupy fifteen per centum less of the lot area than now legally permissible.

(c) That every tenement house hereafter erected exceeding four stories or parts of stories or fifty feet in height above the curb level shall be a fireproof tenement house, and that no tenement house be altered so as to exceed such height without being made a fireproof tenement house.

(d) That tenements in outlying districts of the city be restricted to three stories high and an equivalent restriction be put upon the volume or cubage of buildings other than tenements, and that the Board of Aldermen and Board of Estimate and Apportionment should determine these districts or zones for a period of twenty years.

4. *Modifications of the Tenement House Law Respecting Three-Family Tenements to Encourage the Construction of These Small Tenements with Few Families as Follows:*

(a) That buildings not exceeding 30 feet in height need not have either fire-escapes or stairs extending to the roof.

(b) That in tenement houses hereafter erected not exceeding three stories and cellar in height, and arranged to be occupied by not more than one family on a floor and three families in all, in lieu of stairs there shall be an iron ladder to the roof placed at an angle of 60 degrees, and constructed as required by the Tenement House Law, and that the width of stairs in such a three-story tenement be 2 feet 9 inches.

(c) That a scuttle shall be provided for a three-family tenement 24 by 36 inches, with a scuttle cover provided with a counterbalance weight.

(d) That in tenements not exceeding three stories in height, the stairwells may be reduced to a width of 10 inches to extend from entrance floor to the roof.

(e) That windows in three-family tenements may be placed in vent shaft in existing buildings when windows are used to afford additional light in halls, provided that such windows are stationary and frames are fireproof and glazed with wire glass.

(f) That in three-story buildings where the bulkhead to the roof is omitted, fire escapes and balconies with connecting ladders be placed on the rear of the building in accordance with such regulations as may be adopted by the Tenement House Department.

5. *Measures to Prevent Room and Apartment Overcrowding.*

(a) That no room in any tenement house hereafter to be constructed shall have a superficial area of less than 90 square feet, and that in every apartment there must be at least one room whose superficial area is at least 150 square feet.

(b) That no apartment in a tenement house or two-family house shall be so overcrowded that there shall be afforded less than 600 cubic feet of air space for every adult and 300 cubic feet of air space for every child under 12 years of age occupying such apartment, and that a penalty of a fine not to exceed \$25 attach for violation of this provision. The provision of the present Tenement House Law

regarding room overcrowding applies to rooms, but it is not feasible in the judgment of the committee to enforce this in rooms, since they vary so in dimensions and cubical contents, and they therefore recommend that apartments instead of rooms be made the measure of occupancy.

(c) That a placard should be posted by the Tenement House and Health Departments in a conspicuous place in every apartment of tenement houses, and in two-family houses respectively, calling attention to the fact that the law forbids more than the stated number of adults and children to occupy the apartment, and to the penalty attaching to a violation of this law.

(d) That no lessee of any apartment in any tenement house shall be permitted to take lodgers without notifying in writing the owner or responsible agent of the tenement or dwelling, who shall immediately report to the Tenement House Department, and that a penalty not to exceed \$25 shall attach for violation of this provision.

(e) That the owner or responsible agent of every tenement or two-family dwelling be required to report to the Tenement House Department and the Department of Health respectively, any violation of the law against overcrowding on the part of his tenants where he is unable personally to prevent such overcrowding by serving the tenant with a written statement (of which the owner is to keep a copy) that he is violating the law, and the lessee of an apartment in a tenement house secure a license from the Tenement House Department and the lessee of an apartment in a two-family house secure a license from the Bureau of Occupancy in the Department of Health before taking lodgers.

(f) That a Bureau of Occupancy be created in the Department of Health charged with the enforcement of the law against overcrowding in apartments in two-family houses.

6. *Measures to Promote Health and Safety.*

(a) That when in the judgment of the Tenement House Department the minimum requirement of window space and other means of ventilation required by the law are not sufficient to make rooms sanitary and habitable, said department shall be empowered upon a certificate being signed and certified by two medical inspectors as to the above facts to cause the vacating of said apartment or part thereof in the manner prescribed by law.

(b) That a staff of medical inspectors who are qualified physicians shall be assigned by the Department of Health to the Tenement House Department, who shall pass upon all cases of vacating insanitary buildings or part thereof in which there may be any contagious disease or which is unfit for human habitation, except in the case of new tenements awaiting a certificate of compliance.

(c) That the Tenement House Department of The City of New York shall at such times and in such manner as may to it seem best cause an inspection and examination to be made of all tenement houses in The City of New York, and wherever it shall be found that any such tenement house or part thereof is infected with contagious disease or that it is unfit for human habitation, or occupancy, or dangerous to life or health by reason of want of repair or of defects in the drainage, plumbing, lighting, ventilation, or the construction of the same, or by reason of the existence on the premises of a nuisance likely to cause sickness among the occupants of said house the department shall issue an order requiring all persons therein to vacate such house or part thereof within not less than twenty-four hours nor more than ten days for the reasons to be mentioned in said order, and that the Board of Health should cause a similar inspection and examination to be made of all buildings other than tenements.

(d) That the law requiring the whitewashing of tenement walls every year be vigorously enforced.

(e) That in tenement houses not exceeding four stories in height and not having more than two families on each floor, with courts of the width now required, a family be permitted to occupy the basement.

(f) That the names of the owners of all buildings in the city should be posted in some conspicuous place.

(g) That the Tenement House Commissioner should be made a member of the Board of Health with a vote on all matters pertaining to his department.

STATEMENTS SUBMITTED TO THE COMMITTEE ON HOUSING CONDITIONS. REGULATION OF BUILDINGS AND LOCATING NEW SETTLEMENTS.

A. *Suggestions of Lawrence Veiller, of the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organisation Society, to the Mayor's Commission on Congestion.*

I know of no way by which results can be brought about unless you put into operation some system like the "zone" system, or unless you enact different

regulations for different classes of buildings, providing, for instance, that where, say, 70 per cent. of the buildings in a given block are to be used for business purposes, then no residences may be built, and vice versa, where 70 per cent. of the buildings in the block are residence buildings, no business buildings shall be permitted. These things are easy to suggest, but difficult to accomplish. There are some very serious constitutional questions involved. I take it that your commission is familiar with the decision in the case of *Welch vs. Swazey*, recently decided by the United States Supreme Court, in which the decision of the Massachusetts court was upheld. That decision would seem to point the way for carrying out in New York some sort of a scheme of classification of buildings and the different regulation as to height at least of the different classes. But I believe that all buildings would have to be considered on the same basis in each section of the city; that you could not legally permit a hotel twenty stories high in certain parts of Brooklyn, and confine tenement houses in the same part to four stories in height. In other words, I think that all buildings used for residence purposes of any kind, in any "zone" system, must come under the same regulation, and that buildings used for business purposes could properly come under a different regulation. But beyond this I do not believe it is legally possible to go.

Now, as to the exact proportion of the block to be left uncovered: From an ideal point of view 50 per cent. is desirable. This, of course, is impossible for Manhattan and for some parts of The Bronx and Brooklyn. On the other hand, there are large sections in the northern part of The Bronx, also in Richmond and Queens, where this would be feasible to-day, and in all of our outlying districts it could easily be done. In the other districts the maximum standard should be as high as real estate values and public sentiment would permit.

I understand there is a group of people in The Bronx who have been trying to change the tenement law in this regard for some years past. This would, however, be taking a backward step of thirty years. The law in 1867 applied only to houses of four families or over, but in 1879 it was found that the worst class of tenements in the city was not being reached because of this limitation, and accordingly the law was amended so as to include all houses containing three families or more. If any change is to be made it must be a step forward, and not a step backward, and we must look to the inclusion of the two-family buildings under the act if any change is to be made. This is the law in Chicago and in some other cities where all two-family houses are under the Tenement Law.

Mr. Chairman: What do you think of the suggestions made by several people in The Bronx, that the requirements as to the thickness of walls, or certain other requirements, should be modified so as to encourage the construction of three-family houses?

Mr. Chairman: I think it was to eliminate certain restrictions of the Tenement House Law as to bulkheads on the roof, and modifications of the vent duct so as to lead to the light court instead of to the yard or street where it is almost impossible without breaking up the entire cellar, and modifications as to brick filling where the wall is more than four feet away and details of that character which do not materially affect the sanitary conditions but yet reduce the structural cost of the building in such a manner that it becomes more, you might say, encouraging to the builder to build that type of house. That is, the idea taken is that the present Tenement House Law imposes an expenditure of approximately \$750 for the average three-family house. The builder, where he erects such a house, does so on a very small margin and consequently increases the cost, in that manner reducing his chance of selling, and consequently the three-family houses are almost done for.

Mr. Chairman: What would be the practical effect of the elimination of these restrictions?

Mr. Veiller: Personally, I know of no restrictions at the present time upon the three-family house in the Tenement Law which have the effect of discouraging the building of these houses. I understand that one of the matters of concern is the bulkhead; that a great many builders and owners would like to get rid of providing bulkheads in buildings of this class. The reason for this desire is that the builders want their houses to look like private houses, and not like a flat. As the houses are flats, with all the objectionable features of flats, I see no reason why that desire should be encouraged. But more important than this is the fact that the bulkhead is essential for the protection of the inmates in case of fire. Without a bulkhead the stairs cannot extend to the roof and the only means of access would be by means of ladder and scuttle. To my mind this would be an unsafe condition to permit in new houses, where there are three families and certainly as many as fifteen people in the house. The objection that people thus enter a house and rob it is trivial, because, although the law prohibits the fastening of the bulkhead door with a lock, it distinctly permits its being fastened on the inside with a movable bolt and hook. With regard to the intake, or duct, for ventilation in the inner courts: These are essential and to my mind one of

the best features of the whole Tenement House Law. Without such ducts there cannot be adequate ventilation in inner courts. Generally speaking, I believe the weakest feature of the Tenement House Law as it stands to-day is the three-family house. The three-family house, and I refer to the new ones that are being built, are an absolute menace in case of fire. The stairs are wood, all the floor beams are of wood, the partitions enclosing the stairs are of wood, nearly everything is wooden construction and extremely dangerous. From a sanitary point of view this type of house is also objectionable; the courts are entirely too small, the public halls and stairs are not lighted directly to the outer air, but can be quite dark and unventilated except by a roof skylight. I do not believe this type of housing needs any further encouraging. If there is to be any legislation on the subject it should be in the nature of advance, and the three-family type of buildings should be made much better than it is from a sanitary and structural point of view.

I understand Mr. Schaeffer to say that the present law imposes an extra cost of \$750 on each house, and that this operates to prevent or discourage the construction of three-family dwellings. That may be the argument, but it is not the fact. These houses need no encouragement—they are building plenty of them, as you can readily ascertain if you look up the records. The root of the whole matter is to be found in a small coterie of builders, architects and owners in The Bronx who want to get away from the jurisdiction of the Tenement House Department. They want to be free from the regulation of that branch of the government. The whole issue really boils down to this, as you will readily find if you make inquiry, and all their talk really amounts to nothing but arguments on which to hang their wishes. It is not a question between building three-family houses and five-story flats, but between building three-family houses and two-family houses. The effect of the present restriction, if it has any effect in discouraging building, is to force builders to build two-family houses where they otherwise would build three-family ones. By this means they do not have to comply with any part of the Tenement Law, are not bothered by the Tenement Department, and are as free as they used to be before they were in the jurisdiction of the City at all.

Mr. Chairman: Have you any suggestions to make as to how the construction of these small three-family houses can be encouraged by any changes in the law?

Mr. Veiller: I don't think there is the slightest obstacle in the law to prevent their being built. They are being built in great numbers wherever land values make it worth while. I think if you will look into this matter you will find that the reason back of this agitation is that there are one or two individuals in The Bronx who have been building three-story houses ostensibly for two families, not complying with the Tenement Law, and then later telling the purchaser that they can be occupied by three families. I think you will find that the people who have been most active in the agitation for this legislation have been involved in practices of this kind.

Secondly: *With regard to the demolition of present unsanitary structures of all classes in congested areas*—Do you want to consider in this connection some of the European methods that have been employed in dealing with congestion? There is nothing that you can take up larger than this. You gentlemen realize that no plan of this kind can be carried out without strict regard to the financial side of it. When we realize that one tenement house block on the lower East Side is worth one and one-half million dollars it will be readily seen how little work of this nature can be done. The city, under our constitution, must pay for property so taken and it would not be long before the burdens imposed upon the taxpayers in work of this kind would be unbearable. Of course any such plan could be carried out only by the city, as no private individual could obtain the property necessary.

Mr. Veiller: I never saw a building that needed to be torn down because it was unsanitary. I will qualify this by saying that what I mean is that if a building is unfit for human habitation because of unsanitary conditions, the proper remedy is to vacate it. If it is not fit for people to live in, don't let them live there. As long as a house stands empty it will do no harm to the community and there is no advantage to be gained by destroying it. Of course, in the case where there is a "school sink," that is a nuisance which should be abated; similarly, if there are large openings in the plumbing, the house, even if unoccupied, might do harm to the community through the escape of sewer gas. But these are exceptional instances. I see, therefore, no value in tearing down individual unsanitary houses. The thing to do is to vacate them. Of course, if the City wants to wipe out congested areas and to do it on a neighborhood plan, that is a different matter. There is no difficulty in keeping a house vacant after it is once vacated. This is done through the police very effectively.

Mr. Chairman: Do you think the regulations of the Tenement House Law when

it requires, for instance, the cutting of a window, makes the house fit for human habitation?

Mr. Veiller: This is a broad question. It is pretty hard to say just what conditions render a place fit or unfit for human habitation. I certainly do not think that the conditions you refer to ought to be permitted in the future, and if we had only one hundred houses like that in New York I should say unhesitatingly that we ought to vacate them, but with one hundred thousand windowless rooms, and two hundred and sixty thousand more dark rooms, not including the hundreds of thousands of rooms in the twenty thousand tenement houses which have no means of light and ventilation but small 28-inch air shafts, it would be practically impossible to enforce a provision which required the vacation of such houses. It would mean the displacement of almost the city's entire population; certainly a very considerable portion of it. With regard to your question as to paying for property condemned by the city, section 1300 of the Charter, to which I referred in my opening remarks, lays down in detail the methods of paying for property under different circumstances. I want to say in this connection that I have no doubt that some time in the future New York City will carry out schemes for the improvement of its slum areas on a large scale along the lines that have been carried out in Europe, but I do not think that the city is ready at the present day for such a plan.

Mr. Chairman: As to the question of room overcrowding, do you know of any way by which improvements can be made except by the enforcement of existing laws as to the minimum areas?

Mr. Veiller: I think this can be done by the enactment of a proper law, if enforced. I am very glad to indicate what I think that law should be, but wish to say that such a law will never be enforced unless the public officials charged with this enforcement have much more popular support than they have now, and unless the judges of the minor courts, both civil and criminal, will heartily and enthusiastically assist. We have a law now limiting the number of cubic feet per person. This law is of little value. Our Tenement House Commission of 1900 did not enact it, but found it on the statute books and thought it wise to continue it because the public had got accustomed to this method of regulation, and also because they felt that it was a power which could be utilized effectively in extreme cases by the local authorities, though the Commission then recognized that so far as regulating room overcrowding generally was concerned it would not be very effective.

My suggestion to regulate room overcrowding is this: That a new provision be added to the Tenement House Law to the effect that in tenements of a certain kind (and I should seek to define for this purpose the kind of tenements that we mean—excluding the elevator apartment, at least) no persons outside the immediate family, that is, no boarders or lodgers, should be permitted to be taken into the family without the consent in writing of the Tenement House Department, and I should make the owner responsible for the violation of this provision, and not the tenant. I know the owners will strenuously object to this and will claim that they cannot exercise control over their tenants, but that is not so, they do exercise similar control. The law now makes the owner of a tenement house responsible for the moral character of his tenants and provides that in the case where a prostitute plies her trade in a tenement house the owner shall be liable if he does not eject her and stop the practice after due notice. With regard to my suggestion as to the prohibiting of taking in boarders and lodgers, it would be entirely feasible for the owners to put a clause in the lease and to print it on the rent receipts, stating that the rooms may be occupied by only so many people, and that no lodgers or boarders may be taken without the written permission of the Tenement House Department. That Department could have initial inspections and measurements made of the floor area, and cubic area of the rooms and could officially notify the landlords in writing of the number of people that they would permit to be lodged in the rooms in question. The Tenement House inspectors could then make night inspections among the tenants and, if they found the law to be violated, the landlords would be first warned in writing and then taken to court. By this means, I am firmly convinced that the great majority of the room overcrowding in the City could be in time wiped out. It is the taking of the boarder or lodger that makes most of the trouble and nearly all of the room overcrowding. Of course there will be for a while a great popular opposition to any such plan. The tenants now, many of them, profit by the present overcrowding and find it a source of revenue. But bear in mind what Commissioner Murphy said, that the tenants generally know that they should not take in boarders or lodgers and generally have a guilty and apologetic air when questioned about the number who are harbored. A great deal can be done in this direction, however, if you prohibit the taking in of people outside of the family. This is what causes nearly all of the room overcrowding. It

is not due to large families. There may be a few isolated cases of that kind, but they are the exception, not the rule. It would be helpful in the education process, undoubtedly, to put up signs in various languages, explaining what the provisions of such law are. The judges of the minor courts would have to be brought into a sympathetic attitude toward any such scheme before it could be carried out.

Mr. Veiller: I would not bother with it. You can take such matters up twenty years from now when you have the boarder and lodger question settled. The evil from the large family is a negligible quantity.

To return to the question of limitation of height of buildings: I quite agree with what has been pointed out by one of the previous witnesses, that there is an unfair discrimination in the fact that the Tenement House Law limits the building of tenements to one height and that the Building Law permits hotels and other residence buildings to be built much higher. This is due to the fact that the Tenement House Commission, which drafted the Tenement House Law, had no authority to concern itself with other classes of buildings. I think the idea which Mr. Rudolph Miller worked out in the first Building Code revision, making certain classes of regulations apply to all classes of dwellings, was good, and that all height restrictions should apply alike to all classes of dwellings. There ought to be laws that would really restrict height. Outside of the Tenement House Law there are no such laws at present. The plan suggested by Mr. Ernest Flagg of a system of towers is to my mind one of the wisest suggestions of meeting the situation which exist in lower Manhattan that has thus far been made. The tall building has everything to do with the congestion of traffic and with the difficulties of our transportation problem, which in turn affect the living conditions of the working people.

Allusion has been made to the plan of regulating height by a system of recession of the buildings, or, setting back the buildings at different stories. This plan is carried out pretty successfully in certain English and German cities. The Tenement House Commission of 1900 went over this matter very carefully and, after mature deliberation, felt that it would not suit New York conditions, and that it would be better to have a minimum size yard that would extend from the ground to the sky, rather than to have the buildings set back at different stories. There are, however, many advantages to this scheme, and there are some disadvantages. The advantages are that the people on each floor have a sort of roof garden to live on, equivalent to the yard for purposes of light and air. The disadvantage is that these places are used for throwing rubbish of all kinds, and they rapidly become unsanitary and a nuisance. For my part, I would rather see in the outlying sections a straight yard of 50 feet deep on the 100 foot lot.

You have been talking about percentage of lot. I do not think that this means anything or has any value as a method of regulation (except in one instance). The law now completely regulates the lighting and ventilation of rooms by specifying the minimum size of courts and yards and providing for the increase of such dimensions with an increased height of the building. Except in the case of the deep lot, which we do have in some sections of the city, the percentage clause has no effect; in fact, in some instances it works unnecessary hardship. A man having a short lot is not permitted under the law, because of the percentage clause, to build a house that is better than his neighbor may build on a deeper lot. You ought not to work in the consideration of this problem on a percentage basis. The thing to consider is the depth of the yard. Keep your building as shallow as you can.

As to the restriction of the cubage of building, I do not think this is worth anything. It might work hardship. Why you should restrict a man because he builds on a lot with a 300 foot frontage, instead of on a 100 foot frontage, I cannot see. The only two elements that you need consider are the height and the depth, but when you introduce the width, this third element is unnecessary and may easily work hardship.

"Zone" areas I have touched on. With regard to people living in cellars or basements, there are lots of cellars that are bad, but few basements. The law is entirely adequate to deal with cellars now.

As to the standard for floor area, the number of cubic feet of space: I do not think you can increase this one foot in Manhattan, and that if you do increase it any material amount you could no longer build tenement houses on Manhattan Island and make them pay; but in the outlying boroughs this ought to be increased. It is ridiculous to build new houses in such portions of the City with rooms 70 feet in size. This should be increased to 90 feet, and where the law now says that at least one room shall contain 120 square feet, this should be increased (in these outlying boroughs, remember) to 150 feet. As a matter of fact, they do a good deal better than the law requires usually in the buildings erected in the outlying districts. With regard to three-story frame tenements, I do not think there should be any. They ought to be kept down to two stories. Where land values are so low that people need to build frame

houses there is no such pressure of population as to make necessary the building of tenements at all.

As to your suggestion of some arbitrary standard about limiting the number of families that may be permitted to live on a 50-foot lot, I do not believe that such a provision would hold water for a minute. Unless you could prove to the satisfaction of the Court of Appeals that the mere presence of more than a certain number of people on that floor area was injurious to the community, your enactment would be of little value. Moreover, it would be impossible from a practical point of view to enforce compliance with such a provision. The effort to secure compliance would be more costly than the results would be worth. Moreover, you can accomplish directly, instead of by this indirect means, what you are seeking to accomplish by prohibiting the taking in of boarders and lodgers, as I have suggested earlier in my remarks. In this connection the law should be changed, as I have indicated in my book "A Model Tenement House Law," so that instead of a mandatory prohibition in every case, the matter should be left to the discretion of the enforcing officials. The existing law makes it impossible for a man and wife to sleep in a bedroom in a new-law tenement. This is, of course, ridiculous.

As to the plan for grouping factories and other classes of buildings together in a neighborhood scheme, I am heartily in favor of it. It will take a good many years, however, I fear, to bring it about as a matter of local regulation. It happens strangely enough that naturally there is a greater grouping of this kind in New York City than in any other city in the United States that I know of. Our tenement districts are certainly in Manhattan very definitely located, and so are our business and residence districts.

B—Statement by Hon. John J. Murphy, Commissioner of the Tenement House Department.

Your first question was in reference to the proportion of uncovered area for each block. We have taken as an illustration the block bounded by 1st and 2d aves., and from 79th to 80th sts., which has been figured as containing approximately 132,225 square feet. The minimum uncovered area required for the block, allowing four corner buildings 25 by 100 in size, each with a ten-foot yard and with no courts, was 37,617 square feet. The total uncovered area of such a block, therefore, would be roughly, 28½ per cent. I do not know whether we cover exactly the point you want, but as far as the Tenement House Law is concerned, a block might be covered practically to 72 per cent. of its area. This is allowing for the 90 per cent. corner lot and 70 per cent. interior lots. Is there any more information on this point that you wish?

Mr. Chairman: In the recommendation, what would be the logical reduction of the present area for bettering the present conditions?

Mr. Murphy: Well, so far as I am concerned, I do not want to make recommendations—the standards are so widely different. I know some people who think they are getting congested if someone moves on the same block with them, and I have known places where they object because people could see the front or rear of the premises. So to attempt a recommendation would, it seems to me, or to express any opinions on the subject, mean only vague suggestions. I would rather attempt to furnish facts as to actually what the present situation is.

Mr. Chairman: Has this Department the power to order the demolition of unsanitary tenement houses?

Mr. Murphy: To this I would say that this Department has the right, but not the power. We have the power to vacate a building and I presume the Board of Health has the power to order the removal of unsanitary buildings. We have close on to 100 buildings in New York vacated because of the presence of school sinks, where the school sinks had not been removed before the building was vacated, and we cannot proceed any further for lack of funds. We have sent a list of those places to the Department of Health, calling their attention to the continuance of the school sinks where their continuance may be a menace to the health of the neighborhood. As to the benefit to be derived by putting these matters into the hands of the Tenement House Department, that is, allowing it the power to have demolished such buildings, I think it would be desirable to have an amendment which would give us the means to demolish unsanitary structures; to take these school sinks of which I have spoken, where they remain and we are unable to demolish them and their continuance is a menace to public health. I think we ought to have the means to do so, although, as I say, the Department of Health, having the power, it might be unnecessary to give it to another department.

Mr. Schaeffer: Commissioner Murphy, in Washington they have a separate Condemnation Board which condemns unsanitary buildings regardless of the use to which

they have been put. Do you think, in view of the fact that there are many unsanitary factories and private dwellings, that such a board would be feasible here, as far as it would relate to tenants?

Mr. Murphy: As a matter of fact, there are no unsanitary occupied tenements to-day in the city, so bad as to justify their demolition.

Mr. Schaeffer: What is your understanding of what would justify their demolition?

Mr. Murphy: Where there are school sinks, or a shaky building, any building in such a condition as to threaten immediate injury to the occupants.

Mr. Schaeffer: What about the dark rooms, or twilight rooms?

Mr. Murphy: That would be a suggestion for new legislation which I do not think I want to make.

Mr. Schaeffer: What is the percentage of lot area covering the tenement houses?

Mr. Murphy: I believe that section 50 of the Tenement House Law permits 70 per cent. of the interior lot and 90 per cent. of a corner lot. And, in section 59, it is possible to cover 72 per cent. of the lot in case of four-story houses arranged for not more than two families on a floor, while, on the other hand, a type of three-family houses is permitted to cover only 65 per cent., in the same section. There are very few of these in Manhattan. They are mostly in The Bronx and Brooklyn.

As to the 70 per cent. giving sufficient light area for the average six-story tenement house or apartment house, I think it does not, but there again it is simply a question of what is sufficiently adequate light. This has been a bone of contention since the organization of the Department. I have said that the only basis upon which it could be determined would be to take as a standard houses which have been erected in conformity with the Tenement House Law, and, assuming the surroundings to have been in conformity with the law, wherever similar conditions prevail in old law houses, we would have to regard them as legal. At present the law says that these conditions are legal, and if we criticise it, it would be not on the law but on the facts.

As to the question of the restriction of the height of a building to the angle of recession, can say that we have no restriction of the angle of recession, and as to the question of height only—that the house must not exceed $1\frac{1}{2}$ the width of the widest street on which the building is located. There is nothing about the cubage of the tenement house, nor does the law specify anything. The higher the building the greater the unoccupied space of yard—a foot is required for each additional 12 feet.

Regarding tabulations made of the average percentage of lot covered, say, by the new ten or twelve-story apartments, I took that question up not long ago, and if your Secretary makes a note of it, I will be glad to send my tables to you.

In regard to basement and dwelling in cellars, it seems that basements may be regarded as cellars. The idea was that in a basement or cellar there shall be no more than one family on any floor. A basement is quite as good as any other floor for living purposes. There is no section of the law permitting same to be occupied only by one family. The cellars of new buildings are limited to a certain extent in this respect. Section 15 permits only one family in the cellar of the six-story non-fire-proof tenement where the grade is more than four feet in a hundred. Section 90 permits only one family in the cellar of any new building. The law, however, contains no restriction as to the number of cellar apartments which may exist in a tenement erected prior to April 10, 1901.

Mr. Chairman: Do you know what proportion of the 25,000 basement or cellar dwellings are in old and new law tenements?

Mr. Murphy: I am not aware that it has been tabulated, but if it has been, I will communicate with the Committee.

As to the question of floor area and cubic feet of space, where the law requires that no room shall be less than 7 by 10, with ceiling usually 9 feet, the cubical contents therefore allotted, according to another section, permits practically that room to be inhabited by an adult and a minor. That is, the average bedroom in the majority of tenements erected are therefore good for only that condition. Then when we turn back to another section regarding congestion, it leaves it in a vague condition as to the enforcement of the law. I have made some computations as to the actual number of people who may inhabit new-law houses, based on the computations of the cubic feet space in the house, so you can see exactly what the situation is. We are not permitted, of course, to determine what the rooms are to be used for—we would not consider pantries or bathrooms, but any other room may be used as a sleeping room. The minimum space permitted for such rooms by section 64 is 70 square feet, 9 feet in height, having a cubic contents of 630 cubic

feet. At least one room in each apartment must contain 120 square feet of such area. There is no restriction as to the number of families upon each floor in any case, irrespective of the lot area. We understand one new house in The Bronx has seventeen families on a floor.

Mr. Chairman: I might explain to the Commissioner that the object here was mainly on the average 50 by 100 lot; that is, taking it on the basis of six stories in height and six families on a floor, as there are a number of them erected that way. That is, taking the entire block area—the computation made on the number of people tenantry would be in excess of the average of the requirements per acreage.

Mr. Murphy: Here are the figures I have worked out, taking the plans of four typical buildings as to the number of people who may be permitted to occupy them under the laws as they stand at the present time. The first was a house on the north side of 43d st., 200 feet west of 9th ave.—a six-story building, two apartments on the first, and three on each of the five upper floors. The lot is 24 by 100, five rooms deep. There are seventeen apartments in the building. The total cubic area in the building, excluding those things I mentioned as having 57,789 cubic feet, allow 400 cubic feet to each individual, and apportioning them in the way I spoke of. This indicates that the building might be occupied by 144 tenants. Another building on W. 127th st., of similar size and general construction, can house 160 adults within the law. Those are both what might be termed legal occupancy of the building on the 25-foot lot, so you can see how far it would have to go before an illegal congestion would arise. In the great majority of cases such houses are not occupied to this extent. In a six-story building on the 50-foot lot by 100 feet deep, we find there is legal accommodation for 321 adults, and another six-story building on a lot of the same width and depth gives legal accommodation for 341 adults.

I do not know that there is anything else about which the Tenement House Department can give you any information, but will be glad to do whatever I can upon request.

Mr. Chairman: How much benefit would there be obtained by an increase of the size of the average bedroom, and what would be the approximate size of such a room?

Mr. Murphy: I do not think I am prepared to give any information on that question. I have had—and they are at the disposal of the Committee at any time—an inspection of the congested districts within the last two weeks as to people living there, and I find out there is more general knowledge of the legal requirements than I anticipated—that is to say, people (a great many of them) knew they should not permit boarders and they volunteer to the Inspectors that there is no one living in this flat except the family and the agents instruct the families that they have authority to put them out if they transgress. And the number of families with sleeping accommodations which were found to exceed the total number permitted by law to live in apartments were very few. There were very few instances of more than the legal number.

Mr. Chairman: Do you remember whether your investigators found a good many rooms where the number of occupants exceeded the number there should have been?

Mr. Murphy: It seemed to me it was apparently a small percentage of the total number, but of the total number of houses visited in The Bronx there were apparently a few on the East Side that transgressed. I took some typical blocks and got one report which I have not yet had time to check up by the measurements as to what the actual situation permits, and that is the block bounded by Cherry, Oliver, Oak and Catherine sts. There are reported to be twenty-six tenement houses on the block. This is a small block, less than half the regular sized block. There were nearly 2,000 people, permanent tenants, on that block, and there was about 1,000 of a floating population that boards there occasionally. Then in Harlem the question arises as to whether the occupancy, or in counting the occupants, we are to include people who occupy rooms on one-half time. We find double occupants in rooms where one group occupy in the day time and another at night time. That is also a question to be taken into consideration.

The character of the tenement houses in such a block or blocks as I have spoken of, many of them, are the new two-room apartments such as they have been putting up down in the Roosevelt section. Nearly all of them have been built in the last eight or ten years. That looks to us as being about the most congested section at the moment. I have not all the figures and do not want to take up the entire time.

Mr. Chairman: What suggestions have you to make to the Commission?

Mr. Murphy: I said to Mr. Schaeffer that I preferred not to do this. As an individual matter it is one thing, and officially it is another, and I do not suppose any

man is as little likely to form or abstract an opinion as the man actually on the job.

C.—Statement by Hon. Rudolph P. Miller, Supt. of Buildings.

Light and Ventilation of Residence Buildings—The provisions of this section shall apply to all residence buildings, except tenement houses and lodging houses.

Behind every such building hereafter erected there shall be a yard, extending across the entire width of the lot, at every point open from the ground to the sky unobstructed, except that when there are no sleeping rooms in the first story or basement, the yard may start at the level of the second story floor beams.

Except upon a corner lot, the depth of said yard measured from the extreme rear wall of the building to the rear line of the lot shall be not less than ten feet in every part, for buildings sixty feet or less in height; and in the case of buildings over sixty feet in height, said yard shall be increased in depth six inches for every additional twelve feet of height or fraction thereof above sixty feet.

In the case of such buildings hereafter erected upon corner lots, no yard shall be required behind the buildings, provided, however, that this exemption shall not apply for a distance of more than fifty feet across the rear of the lot, measured from the street line.

Whenever any such building hereafter erected is upon a lot which runs through from one street to another street, a yard shall be provided the full width of the lot, midway between the streets and of the depth and height as in this section provided for interior lots, except that when said lot is less than seventy feet in depth a yard need not be provided.

If any building is hereafter placed on the same lot with a residence building there shall always be maintained between the said buildings an open, unoccupied space across the entire width of the lot, extending from the ground upward to the sky, of a depth equal to twice that required for the yard of a residence building of the height of the highest of the buildings; except that when there are no sleeping rooms in the first story or basement the open space may start at the level of the second story floor beams.

No such building shall be hereafter enlarged or its lot be diminished, so that the yard shall be less in depth than is prescribed for buildings hereafter erected.

No court used for the lighting or ventilation of a sleeping room in any building hereafter erected shall be less than five feet in any dimension; and for every additional twelve feet of height or fraction thereof above sixty feet there shall be an increase of six inches in such dimension.

No such court of any building hereafter erected shall be covered by a roof or skylight, but shall be at every point open and unobstructed to the sky.

No offset from any court shall be used for lighting or ventilating a sleeping room, unless such offset is at least four feet wide and its depth does not exceed its width.

For the purposes of this section the measurements of a court shall be taken at the ground level, except that where such building is partly used for other than residence purposes, they may be taken at the level of the floor beams of the lowest story used for or containing any sleeping rooms.

No such building shall be hereafter altered or enlarged, or its lot be diminished, so that any court shall be of less dimension than herein specified for buildings hereafter erected.

No court to be used for lighting or ventilation of any sleeping room shall hereafter be placed in any building unless such court conforms to the requirements herein specified for courts of buildings hereafter erected.

In any building hereafter erected every sleeping room shall be provided with a window or windows, opening directly upon a street, yard or court. Each such window shall be not less than twelve square feet in area between stop heads, and shall be so arranged that it can be opened to the extent of at least one-half its area. Such sleeping room shall be in every part not less than eight feet high from the finished floor to the finished ceiling. Such sleeping room shall be not less than seven feet wide for one-half its length and shall contain not less than six hundred cubic feet of space.

No sleeping room that does not conform to these requirements shall hereafter be placed in any building.

No sleeping room shall be hereafter placed in any cellar or in any basement, the ceiling of which is less than two feet above the curb.

Light and Ventilation of Mercantile Buildings—The provisions of this section shall apply to Mercantile Buildings located on lots fronting on a street and having a greater depth than seventy feet.

The provisions of this section shall also apply to such Public Buildings and Special Structures as the Superintendent of Buildings may deem necessary.

Behind every such building hereafter erected, unless in this section otherwise provided, there shall be a yard extending across the entire width of the lot, at every point open to the sky.

The depth of said yard, measured from the extreme rear wall of the building to the rear line of the lot, shall be not less than ten feet in every part, for buildings sixty feet or less in height; and in buildings over sixty feet in height, said yard shall be increased in depth six inches for every additional twenty-four feet of height, or fraction thereof, above sixty feet.

When any such building is located on a lot which runs through from one street to another street, the said yard shall be provided midway between the streets, across the entire width of the lot.

When any such building is located on a corner lot, no yard need be provided behind the building, provided, however, that this provision shall not apply for a distance of more than fifty feet across the rear of the lot, measured from the street line.

In case more than seventy-five per cent. of the area of the block in which such building is hereafter erected is occupied by other than residence buildings, no yard need be provided behind the building, but in lieu thereof there shall be provided an interior court or courts having an aggregate horizontal area equal to that of the yard otherwise required.

No such court shall be less than ten feet in any dimension, and for every additional twenty-four feet in height, or fraction thereof, above sixty feet, there shall be an increase of three inches in such dimension.

No such court shall be covered by a roof or skylight, but shall be at every point open to the sky.

For the purposes of this section, the measurements for yards or courts may be taken at the level of the second story floor beams, but never more than twenty feet above the curb.

No such building shall hereafter be altered or enlarged or its lot be diminished, so that the yard or any court shall be less in depth or dimension than herein specified for buildings hereafter erected.

D.—Mr. I. N. Phelps Stokes, representing the New York Chapter of the American Institute of Architects, and a member of the De Forest Tenement House Commission of 1901.

In response to a request from the Chairman that he make a general statement of his views on the housing situation in New York, with suggestions for improving the existing conditions, Mr. Stokes outlined a plan submitted to the Tenement House Commission and embodied in their report, for condemning individual blocks in the most congested districts, demolishing the old tenements and other buildings and selling strips forty feet wide on the longer frontages on which private capital should erect buildings two rooms deep and five stories high of the simplest design and construction; the central strips, about one hundred and twenty feet wide and from four to six hundred feet long, open at the two ends, to remain the property of the City and to be laid out as small public parks.

It was found that in this way two-thirds of the population of one of the most congested blocks in the city could be rehoused under ideal conditions without increasing the rents. This would, of course, require legislation permitting excess condemnation, which Mr. Stokes said he considered almost the most important step which could at this time be taken to secure better housing conditions.

Mr. Stokes stated that it would take a very bold Commissioner to order the demolition of unsanitary buildings, and that most of them can be repaired and made sanitary and habitable. He further stated that, in his opinion, the most important work which can be accomplished for better housing is to reduce rents, even at the sacrifice of some space and convenience in apartments.

The present minimum limits of the Tenement House Law are adequate in most respects, although it might be desirable to increase the dimensions of one room in each apartment.

Mr. Stokes stated that in general he did not believe in having revisions to the Tenement House Law which would increase the cost of construction, or limit the development of new types of plans; indeed, he believed that some relaxation of the present law in these respects would be desirable.

Some form of districting the city would be feasible, and better standards should be strictly enforced in the boroughs outside of Manhattan.

One defect of the Tenement House Law is that it does not differentiate in tenement buildings between rooms on a street and rooms on a court or yard—i. e., rooms should be judged by their relation to the space from which they derive their light and air, quite independent of the question as to whether they happen to be above

or below the level of a curb, which may be hundreds of feet away, and which can have no effect upon their lighting and ventilation. Seventy square feet is a sufficient minimum superficial floor area for bedrooms, and it is better in general to divide a given space into a greater number of small rooms rather than into a lesser number of larger rooms.

The low degree of intelligence brought to bear upon the planning of tenements is surprising, and most of the plans filed with the Tenement House Department show, to a lamentable degree, lack of thought, effort, experience and ability to get the best results under given conditions.

An effort should be made to stimulate the development of new types of plans. To this end competitions should be encouraged and model tenements built by private capital.

The use of new and more economical materials and methods of construction should be encouraged, and every legitimate means should be taken to economize in the design and construction of tenements.

Mr. Stokes stated that he would like to see Architects licensed, and that he believed that this would have some effect in improving the types of tenement house plans.

F.—Statement by Mr. George B. Ford, Architect.

The subject assigned me, "Housing Reform in New York," is rather misleading. It would probably be better to call it "Housing Reform out of New York." The trouble is that an adequate solution of the Housing Problem in New York, particularly Manhattan, is impossible. You know well what the problem is; how intolerable are present conditions. It is needless to tell you farther about the lack of air and sunlight, with all its attendant evils, which characterizes so much of New York housing. You have been through that time and time again. I believe that you are much more interested in receiving suggestions for relief from this state of affairs. To that end, I would esteem it a privilege to be allowed to submit for your consideration certain ideas which my recent trips abroad have brought me to believe are quite adaptable to our conditions.

No matter where I went, no matter whom I talked with, I came away with the same impression, an impression of the marked centrifugal tendencies of city housing, the tendency toward the single house set in its own garden; everywhere that was the goal toward which all city housing reformers were striving. Nowhere was it more strongly brought out than at Vienna, at the Ninth International Housing Congress. There 1,400 delegates, representing all the countries of Europe, unanimously concurred in regarding this as the only real solution of the problem.

Think what this means; the charm of the home bathed in sunlight from morn till eve, gay with many flowers round about, sheltered by trees which break the raw cold winds of winter, yet do not hinder the cooling breezes of summer. Everywhere is that much sought "Light and Air" distributing freely its health-giving qualities to all. Here life is a joy; a life worth living, free from that dreading of the morrow which so often obsesses the tenement dweller in his sordid cell of bricks. Little wonder if the father stays at home, for here there is a place for him to work where he may feel that everything he does is for the good of his family. And a happy family it is, too. Why shouldn't it be, where the children may play to their hearts' content free from the danger and dirt of the street, revelling in space and in nature. Free scope is given to their imaginations. Play becomes spontaneous and natural and, so, healthy. All of which relieves the mother of much bother and worry; a contrast to the tenement barrack. What a delight for a family to be alone; no one prying in at all hours of day and night. What a gain to the decency of family life. No piano overhead, no carousing party below, but all quiet and peace, glorious nights to sleep in, glorious holidays to rest in. Nor is the air poisoned with the fetid dust of the street or the rotting garbage of the court; instead that nostril satisfying freshness of free air purified by the leaves; perfumed by many flowers. Think what it must mean in increased efficiency on the part of the workers who are fortunate enough to live under such conditions. Think what it must mean to the mother raising a family.

And that garden, too, is a source of joy, for what tastes better than the vegetables, fresh from one's own garden, raised under one's own watchful care. They mean, too, a saving in the food bill while they last and they help in another way too, for those very vegetables and flowers assist powerfully in fostering a community spirit. Neighbors get together to swap experiences, their very troubles form an easy bond of sympathy, and so there grows a feeling of common interest, which soon extends to all the affairs of the settlement. So the town is begot, so citizens are made, men capable of entering earnestly and sympathetically into the civic life of the community. Nor does it stop with the man. What better start in life could the child have than to pass his early years amid such surroundings. Every incentive is opened to him to lead a normal life. Thrift abounds; he soon learns to save; self-respect is

everywhere evident. He soon learns habits of cleanliness. He learns instinctively to love the country so that he can never become more than a passing tolerator of tenement life. He is fortunate in his family life, for it is a unit; wholesome in its integrity. All, parents and children, become imbued with a sense of responsibility which makes for steadfastness and rightmindedness. Dissension gains little foothold, for all are too occupied to find fault. Social unrest is tempered and good citizenship abounds.

Last but not least, the death rate drops markedly, and the hospitals go begging for patients. The police courts grow idle. The poorfarms seek only for occupants. The city budget falls, the tax rate decreases.

However, it is one thing to talk about country life, the joys of which most of us know full well, and quite another in finding how to bring people out to it. As is only natural, people do not care to live far from their work. After a hard day in town, one cannot be expected to spend a long weary hour or two jammed into an already bursting train, only to be forced out long before daybreak to repeat the torture back into town again. Much depends on this question of transit. Every device capable of moving crowds back and forth easily and cheaply should be investigated. A plan should be made which would take account of the probable growth of the city far into the future. Main radial lines for traffic should be determined; lines connecting the outlying points should be provided for. Sites for public buildings, parks, squares and playgrounds should be laid out. And as the city extends up to these points care should be taken to see that property owners conform to these plans. It is most interesting to see what England is doing along this line under her new Town Planning Act, what Germany is doing in many of her towns, and how France is even contemplating making this town extension planning compulsory.

It is all very well to make these plans and to work out an ideal transit scheme, but the great majority of workers are not going out unless their means of livelihood goes too. Shops, distributing houses and certain factories, in particular those for the manufacture of seasonable goods, have to remain in town, but nearly all the other factories are free to move out. The remission of the whole or part of the taxes on the factories coming out has been declared unconstitutional. Communities can do little in the way of offering cheap land or special privileges. It is useless to talk to manufacturers about the increased efficiency of labor in the country. The chief way he can be reached is through his pocketbook. He can be reached on that side in one most important way, and that is through cheaper and better transportation and storage facilities. This implies the working out of a big comprehensive system of through and connecting tracks, yards, sidings, terminals, and distributing points of harbors, docks and canals, with all their connections with the former; of freight subways and trolley routes; of teaming routes for motor or for horses with all their connections with the through routes. How interestingly some of the German towns like Hamburg or Bremen have solved these problems.

Nor is it enough to attract the factories out to outlying regions. Unless something more is done, the great horde will continue to live in its huddled East Side and commute out to the factories. The workers must be educated. They must be shown in every way that can reach their imagination the overwhelming advantages of living outside, and, more than that, they must be shown exactly where to go and how to get there, and to overcome their considerable inertia they should be given a little shove to start them off.

Even after they are once out there the battle is not won. They must be made to stay. They have given up much when they have left their crowded quarters. They must be given that which will compensate for their loss. As far as possible, they should be located near others of their own race and tongue. The social life of the congested city district, the variety and attractiveness of the amusements and recreations more than make up, in the opinion of most of the dwellers, for the hardness of life in the cramped city home. There are many suggestions for supplying this deficit in the outlying districts. England in particular is full of them. The terms "Neighborhood Centre," "Social Centre," "Social Club," "Social Hall," "Community Hall," are full of possibilities. Through their mediumship wholesome and attractive recreation can be and is provided for the community. Nor is it doled out to them, as it might sound, but rather it is provided by the residents themselves. During the evening there are all the features of social club life, games, music, reading, talks, moving pictures, or what not; during the day there is tennis, croquet, bowling and whatever may be the national sport of the people of the district.

The child has far better opportunities for healthy physical development, but unless considerable attention is paid to the school question he will miss much as compared with the crowded city region. However, in America, we do not need to worry about this, for this is usually one of the things we do best.

There are other things to be considered too; shops, stores and markets. The

residents must not have to go into town for their commodities. They should be right at hand and central; a problem which has been so admirably worked out in many of the English suburban communities.

Again protection against burglary, fire, etc., is a whole problem in itself, finding its solution in adequately lighted streets and an efficient fire and police force.

Once we have induced the workers to come out to our suburbs the great question remains as to how and by what means we are going to house them. Many schemes have been tried, but most of them work far more to the advantage of the owner of the property than they do to that of the tenant. Yet they can be made to work to the great advantage of the tenants, and at the same time, pay a reasonable return to the owner of the land. I beg to be allowed to describe the housing movement that has been having such a phenomenal growth recently in England. I refer to the Garden Suburb and Garden City movements.

The English Garden Suburb is a co-partnership community, in which each of the tenants, instead of owning his house and land buys shares in a co-operative company, which owns and operates the whole community. A central body in London, called the Co-partnership Tenants, Limited, gives great assistance in the formation of a local society, and secures a government loan on two-thirds of the value of the land and property, at an interest rate 3 1-2 per cent per annum. This central body then finances loan stocks, which pays 4 per cent. per annum and a share stock which is to be purchased by the tenants and which pays a maximum of 5 per cent. per annum. The prospective tenant of a house is required to buy this share stock to the value of £50, but he is required to pay only five or ten pounds down. Any profits that accrue to the society—and after paying all charges and interests, the usual amount is between 5 per cent. and 10 per cent.—are paid back to the tenants in the form of share stock. When the tenant possesses £50 worth of share stock, he receives a money interest on it. He is expected to continue to purchase share stocks up to a value equivalent to that of his house and land. The rents on the houses are similar to those on other houses in the same general district, but the tenant in one of these copartnership suburbs has the great advantage of knowing that under the terms of the foundation of the society there can never be more than twelve houses to the acre. Further, every part of the community is designed for the use and enjoyment not of the individual but of the whole body. A scheme for the whole acreage is laid out at the beginning, and all future roads and all future buildings must conform to this layout. Spaces are reserved for public buildings, civic, social, educational and religious. Spaces are also reserved for parks, playgrounds, tennis courts, croquet lawns, bowling greens, etc. Space is strictly set aside for stores and offices. A planting scheme is arranged for the streets, trees are set out, the houses are made to conform to certain lines which will give the best general effect. In the working out of all these plans, and in the carrying on of the life of the community, the tenant has full say, for the tenants elect a committee who has charge of the affairs of the community.

When such a community is started in connection with a large industrial establishment, it is technically known as a Garden Village. It differs from the garden suburb only in that one man provides most of the capital for its launching. This man, however, must be careful to do everything he can to make the tenants feel that the place is theirs, and that they are not being patronized by their employer.

The third of these communities is called a Garden City. This is a self-contained community, with all the means of existence forming an integral part of it. It is laid out along similar lines, and carried on in a similar way to that of the above-described Garden Suburbs. It differs in two marked features, one is that a great proportion of the area of the town is set aside for all time for farm allotments with the idea that every dweller in the centre of the community shall have permanently on the outskirts, a tract reserved for raising vegetables and flowers. The other feature is that a space to the leeward of the town is permanently reserved for factory sites, this tract being in proximity to the railroad. The first Garden City at Letchworth, England, has grown in six years from nothing to a community of 6,000 inhabitants, with several streets of stores and offices, and a large district covered by some twenty factories. The place is sound financially, and has proved a most desirable place to live in.

In general, the Garden City and Suburb idea, has been one of the most rapid and healthy growth, the Co-partnership Tenants, Ltd., have already \$5,000,000 invested in these communities, and this is only a part of the total capital invested in them. There are not only some 20 of these suburbs in England with as many more in prospect, but all through the continent of Europe, in Germany in particular, similar communities are being formed. At the International Housing Congress in Vienna, the one thing on which all delegates agreed was the desirability of forming such communities as a solution of the housing problem. In Germany they have carried it one step fur-

ther, and are using the capital which the government accumulates on its great system of workmen's sick insurance to loan out at 3 per cent. up to the value of 80 per cent. to 100 per cent. of the land and houses in these copartnership suburban communities. Thus, they are using the money which is saved to cure sickness and to prevent the same. The best feature of these communities is the fact that the tenant himself receives all the advantage of the unearned increment of land values. At Letchworth this has already amounted to over 50 per cent. of the original cost of the land. A tenant is independent for he can hold his property as long as he wants. Further, it accomplishes great good in that the tenants through their interest in the general community life, develop an interest in city affairs, and thereby become the best of citizens.

Despite the desirability of living outside the city, there are still many people to whom this is impossible. There are many who must remain in the crowded tenement districts. That being the case we are bound to give them as many of the advantages of the country as possible. The present building code of New York City has made long steps in this direction and great credit is due the men who are responsible for it. Realizing the difficulties they had in obtaining as much as they did, there are only a few minor items that we can suggest, where the code could be immediately improved. If windows were required to be larger, it would help greatly in the admitting of more light and air in the rooms. If the arrangement of rooms was insisted upon so that in a given suite there could always be a through ventilation from street to court or from yard to yard, it would materially improve its habitableness. Again, if a reasonably large opening were made at the street level between the yard or street and the court, it would permit air to draw up through the interior court in a way that now is impossible. Aside from these immediately possible changes it would, of course, be desirable to increase the number of cubic feet required for a person from 400 to 600 at least, and also to increase the proportion of the lot left vacant.

None of these suggested changes, however, really come down to the root of the whole matter. We have been shown that sunlight and air kill the germs of disease, in particular those of tuberculosis. It is most desirable that a certain amount of sunlight should come into every room of every apartment every day in the year. What this minimum should be is difficult to determine, but it is possible to have at least one-half hour's sunlight in every room, even on the shortest day of the year. M. A. A. Rey, of Paris, has shown that if tenement and streets are run north and south it is possible to have sunlight everywhere even though the streets be comparatively narrow, so on a New York City block, if rows of five or six-story tenements, two rooms deep are run paralleled with the avenues, it is possible by leaving twenty feet clear space between these rows for the buildings to occupy 70 per cent. of the lot, as now allowed, and at the same time give this half hour of sunlight in every room, even on the 21st of December. This half hour is the minimum, and most of the time the rooms would receive far more than this. Such a scheme would not be possible on a typical city block, divided, as it now is, by 25 by 100 lots. It would also necessitate the waiving of the present building law requirement of a yard to be reserved at the rear of the tenement. If the buildings covered only 50 per cent. of the lot, those open spaces between the lines of the tenements might be 30 to 35 feet wide. Those open spaces are full of possibilities for public social use. They give an excellent place for the children to play where they may be under the watchful eyes of their mothers in the apartments above. At the same time they are away from the danger and dirt of the public street. These open spaces may be made most attractive with lawns, flowerbeds and shrubbery, and they may be shut off at the street ends with trees which would not only give privacy, but will add considerably to the effect by means of alternating buildings and trees, so seen when looking down the street. This means considerable in the way of cleanliness, for every thing is open to the inspection of the city officials. Furthermore, much less dust and noise would penetrate into the interior of the tenements. Further, this isolation of buildings in groups means a considerable gain in the possibilities of fighting fire or conflagration. As the buildings are two feet deep, and as every apartment extends through from front to back, an excellent circulation of air is everywhere possible. Such an arrangement means a great deal in the way of privacy, and the development of family life. It is believed that such tenements could be built at a cost very little more than of the present dumbbell type, providing at the same time nearly as much rentable space.

After all this whole question of housing reform is one of business interest. Consider the amount of money which the city budget annually allots to hospitals, tuberculosis sanitariums, asylums, poorfarms, reform institutions, including courts, jails and reformatories, and to the police and fire department and then consider how, after the city has spent considerable money in curing a person from the tenements, they send them back with the instructions to get as much sunshine and air, knowing all the time that this sunlight and air is almost impossible to find. Little wonder is it

then that the person again becomes a charge upon the public. If the people were properly housed everyone agrees that quite a little of this expense could be reduced. Capitalize this reduction and apply it to the forming of Garden Suburbs or the scientific improving of tenements and would it not far more than pay for itself purely as a financial proposition. The one thing that the city as a city can do to help this would seem to be the providing of adequate transit and transportation, so and only so can the city decentralize its dwellers. So and only can housing reform be made effective.

Chairman Cantor: What proportion of the funds in copartnership housing operations is provided by the State?

Mr. Ford: Generally two-thirds and one-third is private capital although sometime private capital furnishes the entire amount as in Earswick, Doncaster, and Wolverhampton where some special interest, colliery or factory, has started it and given the capital.

Among the things that could be done to lessen the evils of congestion one would be to provide more space for windows and let apartments run through from streets to courts or courts to yards so as to give opposite openings into the air. In the boroughs where the street maps had not been finally made and adopted, streets should be made to run as nearly north and south as possible and the blocks between these should allow for dwellings only two rooms deep.

Chairman Cantor: What would you do with the worst tenements in New York now?

Mr. Ford: We would undertake building operations on a large scale in the new boroughs and the buildings should be constructed two rooms deep from street to alley. The buildings being preferably not over four stories high. These should not cover more than 70 per cent. of the lot. The intervening open space could be used for common meeting and recreation places such as are not provided under the present law. The mothers would have an opportunity to watch the children at play in a way not possible at present.

Mr. Cantor: Would it be possible for the city to condemn every third house?

Mr. Ford: This would not give more sunlight in rooms unless window space is increased. There should be a large opening to street or yard at the base of the court so that the latter may act as a funnel to such fresh air up through it.

Mr. Schaeffer: How large a court opening would you suggest?

Mr. Ford: Indefinite without experiment, several times the present opening which is 3 by 7 feet.

Mr. Schaeffer: Should this be made at or below the street level?

Mr. Ford: If you open it large enough it can be made below the street level.

The tenement house problem must be dealt with as a Greater New York problem because it is not possible to deal with it exclusively as a Manhattan problem since conditions in the other boroughs differ so greatly.

Chairman Cantor: Has there been much immigration from London or do outsiders now settle there?

Mr. Ford: Both movements of population have occurred. For instance, in the demolition of dwellings the people dispersed have to a certain extent gone out into outlying boroughs. Many people who come from the city settle in the outlying boroughs. London almost uniquely stretches out gradually and there is no sudden break from tenements 5 to 6 stories high to open country.

In London transit lines are better arranged and tend to distribute population. In Birmingham it is true that many people come into the centre of the city from Bournville and Harborne.

The Secretary: Is it not true that the good distribution of population is due also to the fact that factories are better distributed than in New York City?

Mr. Ford: Yes. That is a very important cause in that it saves carfare. That is an important item in the workingman's budget.

In London the two-penny rate runs out to Hampstead for workingmen.

Ernest Flagg, Architect, 35 Wall Street, New York, January 30, 1911.

ADDRESS BY PROF. STANLEY D. ADSHEAD, HEAD OF THE LIVERPOOL UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF CIVIC DESIGN, BEFORE THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION, THURSDAY AFTERNOON, AUGUST 25TH, IN THE CITY HALL.

"Standards of Efficiency."

Nothing is so apt to break up one's opinions as regards what constitutes the minimum requirements for public control so as to insure efficiency, safety and satisfactory hygienic conditions, like a visit to a neighboring country where other standards are maintained which differ from those to which one has become accustomed. It is my privilege at the present moment to be enjoying for the first time a visit to the United States and to see here your accepted standards, in particular those which refer to the public safety in matters of construction, transportation, hygiene and the maintenance of streets, parks and public places of all kinds. A new view always carries with it a strong impression and as such may have value. I therefore take the liberty briefly of putting before you some of my impressions of the things which I have seen since I arrived in New York.

I would prefer that my observations would be entirely complimentary, but if so they might be insincere, and rather than this I prefer to risk the consequences which befall those who, though sincere are yet uncomplimentary.

The City of New York is to be congratulated upon having instituted the Commission on Congestion. I note that the Congestion Committee has outlined its investigations under the following heads:

First—The present congestion of population and room overcrowding throughout the city.

Second—The economic and administrative causes of congestion.

Third—The methods now employed in this country and abroad for relieving and preventing congestion.

Fourth—Transit facilities and their relation to congestion.

Overcrowding of Manhattan exists almost to the extent of two-thirds more than in any European city. This to my mind is due directly to the peculiar conditions of its position, it being practically an island and directly to the immense value of land and lack of foresight shown by the public authorities in the immediate past. Of course when we talk of 1,600 to the acre in New York and 600 in London, we must not overlook the fact that New York possesses an exceptionally healthy climate and comparatively wide streets.

New Tenement House Law Inadequate.

At the same time even admitting this no argument can convince that a tenement building code is satisfactory which allows a tenement to be erected to a height of 150 feet in a hundred-foot street with as much as 70 per cent. of its area covered, the remaining 30 per cent. being an area not more than twelve feet wide up to a height of 60 feet and for the rest only a few feet wider.

Natural Light Shut Out of New Law Tenements.

It has been my privilege to visit many of your new law tenements and it was very distressing to find that natural light was quite out of the question in most of the rooms overlooking these areas, artificial light being used during the whole of the day. I hold no brief for the European slums, rather the reverse, but I am afraid that in the matter of admitted requirements as regards light and air in England and Germany, there is no question but that the standard set by New York is infinitely too low.

In the New York slum my impression is that the occupant cannot be described as poor, they are exceedingly well dressed, well fed and clean in their person. When compared with the slum dweller in England the cleanliness and tidiness of their rooms are beyond all question superior. Certainly New York shows no appearance of either poverty or distress such as are evidenced in British towns.

No doubt the owners of real estate in New York as in other countries, especially Germany, are holding up their property on a fictitious and artificial basis if the land continue to be used for tenements for the working population. The real value of any site depends not upon artificial conditions which a short-sighted policy has fenced around it, but upon its appropriate use as regards

a. Class of building.

b. Efficiency with which, when erected, the business of the building is conducted, and these always accompanied by sound hygienic conditions.

It appears to me that the solution of the New York problem is to advocate as far as possible:

1. The removal of all factories and businesses out of the restricted area of Manhattan wherever such businesses can be carried on elsewhere.

2. To encourage in every possible way the construction of more arterial lines of communication, particularly by subway.

3. To open up all undeveloped and desirable land within twenty miles of the City of New York by constructing new lines of communication and so decentralizing the city.

There will ever remain a large class who wish to reside next to their work in the town. This being so we must take care and see that such dwellings are hygienically satisfactory in every way, but our immediate interest should concern itself with the erection of dwellings in the outlying districts.

The policy of the London County Council during the early years of its administration as also the policy in Liverpool and other large provincial towns, has been to pull down and reconstruct to improve conditions in the matter of their housing and without much regard to the appropriate use of the site or its possible more appropriate use for business purposes; but it has been found that this has been a mistake and New York would do well not to fall into the error of these towns.

The English Town Planning Act.

At first sight this appears to be an act which will promote the development of new towns, but this is not quite so, as actually it is restrictive rather than constructive. It is essentially a supplement to the local by-laws, further restricting the use of land. It is an adoptive act and applies to land likely to be used for building purposes so it practically may cover all unbuilt-on land around the town. In its application it means that the local authority may decide entirely the use to which the owner may put his land. The local authority is empowered to control the width and direction of all streets, the use to which the land may be put, whether for cottages, factories or business premises. The exact wording of the act is "the height and character of the buildings and the number which may be erected on each acre."

I understand that you have in the City of New York approximately 103,000 tenements, and responsible for their sanitary condition you have some 300 inspectors, I consider this number to be totally inadequate, having regard to the overcrowding which is sure to exist. In some twelve tenements I have myself inspected, the areas were littered with refuse and fetid matter which must vitiate the air and be very dangerous to the occupants of the back rooms.

Elevated Boisterously Noisy.

Your overhead railway will no doubt be removed in due course. New York needs more wood block streets and should pay more attention to the question of reducing the noise.

New York Architecture Finest in the World.

The architecture of New York is the finest of any wooden architecture in the world. Unlike England and Germany, and to some extent, France, New York and its street architecture is never trivial, everything is on a grand scale. Your tall buildings are a credit to your ingenuity.

In your building constructions, you are far ahead of all the other nations in the world.

From the economic standpoint no doubt, more control will shortly have to be exercised as regards the distribution of your tall blocks, else not only will the individual suffer but the city at large.

Summary of Tenement Conditions, June 30, 1910.

Number of Tenements, June 30, 1910.	Total No.	New Law Tenements.	Old Law Tenements.
Manhattan	41,773	4,243	37,530
The Bronx	7,800	2,480	5,320
Brooklyn	48,207	8,063	40,144
Queens	4,533	1,965	2,568
Richmond	553	9	544
New York City.....	102,886	16,760	86,106
Number of Apartments, June 30, 1910.			
Manhattan	511,029	107,712	403,317
The Bronx	76,994	41,358	35,636
Brooklyn	250,260	67,807	182,453
Queens	18,828	8,294	10,534
Richmond	2,049	53	1,996
New York City.....	859,160	225,224	633,936

Proportion of Population Living at a Given Density, 1910.

District.	Population.	Percentage of Total of Manhattan.	Percentage of Total of Greater New York.
Manhattan, Wards 10, 11, 17.....	375,316	Over 600 to the Acre. 16%	7.86%
Manhattan, Ward 13.....	64,651	500 to 600 to the Acre. 2%	1.34%
Manhattan, Ward 7.....	102,108	400 to 499 to the Acre. 4%	2.11%
.....	300 to 399 to the Acre.
.....	200 to 299 to the Acre.
Manhattan, Wards 4, 9, 14; Brooklyn, Ward 16	192,745 150 to 199 to the Acre.	4.03%
Manhattan, Wards 6, 8, 16, 19, 20, 21; Brooklyn, Wards 5, 6, 21, 27.....	743,036 100 to 149 to the Acre.	15.57%
Manhattan, Wards 12, 15, 18, 22; Brooklyn, Wards 10, 13, 14, 15, 19, 25, 28.....	1,450,838 50 to 99 to the Acre.	30.43%
Manhattan, Ward 1; Brooklyn, Wards 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 11, 17, 20, 22, 23, 24.....	506,197 49 to 25 to the Acre.	10.73%
Manhattan, Ward 5; Brooklyn, Wards 8, 12, 18, 26.....	330,949 Under 25 to the Acre.	6.94%
Manhattan, Wards 2, 3; Brooklyn, Wards 29, 30, 31, 32; Richmond, all Wards; Queens, all Wards; The Bronx, consid- ering this Borough as a whole.....	1,001,023	20.99%

Population of Each Borough in New York in 1900, 1905, and 1910, and Density Per Acre.

Borough.	Population 1900.	Density Per Acre.	Population 1905.	Density Per Acre.	Population 1910.	Density Per Acre.
Manhattan	1,850,093	131.8	2,112,380	149.8	2,331,542	166.1
The Bronx.....	200,507	7.7	271,630	10.4	430,980	16.5
Brooklyn	1,166,582	23.48	1,358,686	27.27	1,634,351	32.89
Queens	152,999	2.4	198,240	2.6	204,041	3.7
Richmond	67,021	1.8	72,845	1.9	85,969	2.34
Greater New York	3,437,202	16.4	4,013,781	19.1	4,766,883	22.7

Increase of Population in Each Borough in New York from 1900 to 1905 and 1905 to 1910, and Increases in Density Per Acre.

Borough	Population 1900.	Population 1905.	Increase Population to 1905.	Increase Density Per Acre.	Population 1910.	Increase Population to 1910.	Increase Density Per Acre.
Manhattan	1,850,093	2,112,380	262,287	18.7	2,331,542	219,162	15.6
The Bronx.....	200,507	271,630	71,023	2.7	430,980	159,350	6.1
Brooklyn	1,166,582	1,358,686	192,104	3.79	1,634,351	275,665	5.5
Queens	152,999	198,240	44,828	.2	284,041	85,801	1.1
Richmond	67,021	72,845	5,698	.1	85,969	13,124	.3
Greater New York	3,437,202	4,013,781	576,579	2.7	4,766,883	753,102	3.6

Heights of Tenements for Which Plans Were Filed in the Tenement House Department from July 1902 to December 31, 1910.

Borough.	Total.	1-story.	2-story.	3-story.	4-story.	5-story.	6-story.	More than 6-story.
Manhattan	4,723	4	11	786	3,747	175
The Bronx	3,822	33	590	770	1,862	567
Brooklyn	12,211	550	6,804	4,121	544	185	7
Queens	2,915	6	1,286	1,436	170	17
Richmond	36	3	31	1	1
New York City..	23,707	6	1,872	8,865	5,073	3,209	4,500	182

Classification of Old Law Tenements According to Structural Changes Prescribed by Law, June 30, 1910.

Boroughs.	Number in which requirements have been met.	Number in which orders to make changes have been issued and are now pending.	Number still subject to structural orders.	Total Old Law Tenements.
Manhattan	10,054	11,201	16,275	37,530
The Bronx	1,984	1,035	2,301	5,320
Brooklyn	2,777	9,422	37,945	40,144
Queens	115	188	2,265	2,568
Richmond	21	47	476	544
New York City.....	14,951	21,893	49,262	86,106

Number of Dark Rooms and School Sinks Remaining in Old Law Tenements, June 30, 1910.

Boroughs.	Rooms opening on air-shaft less than legal size.	Rooms with window less than legal size opening to adjoining room.	Rooms opening on covered shaft.	Rooms without windows.	School-sinks or privy vaults.	Basement dwellings Jan. 1, 1910.
Manhattan	8,221	32,442	58,334	25,753	632	14,797
The Bronx	607	489	2,004	987	12	1,953
Brooklyn	13,506	52,998	63,118	55,208	246	7,117
Queens	625	3,345	1,290	3,274	576	490
Richmond	28	225	66	211	92	91
New York City	22,987	89,499	124,812	85,443	1,558	24,448

Number and Proportion of Tenements Erected in Brooklyn from 1902 to 1907, Inclusive; Accommodating Three to Over Twenty-eight Families.

Families.	Number.	Proportion of Total.
3	1,653	24.93%
4	345	5.27%
5	365	5.57%
6	1,806	27.57%
7	250	3.82%
8	1,147	17.51%
9	180	2.74%
10	25	0.39%
11	22	0.33%

Families.	Number.	Proportion of Total.
12	49	0.74%
13	14	0.21%
14	47	0.72%
15	19	0.29%
16	65	0.99%
17	25	0.39%
18	66	1.01%
19	12	0.19%
20	52	0.79%
21	56	0.86%
22	154	2.35%
Accommodating more than 22 families.....	198	3.02%
	6,550	

Number of Families on Each Floor of Tenements for Which Plans Were Filed—
January 1 to December 31, 1909; January 1 to December 31, 1910.

	Manhattan.	Bronx.	Brooklyn.	Queens.	Richmond.	New York City.
1 family per floor, 1909.	2	62	193	22	2	281
1910.	9	33	128	34	..	204
Total.....	11	95	321	56	2	485
2 families per floor, 1909.	34	375	669	211	2	1,291
1910.	19	335	355	155	1	865
Total.....	53	760	1,024	366	3	2,156
3 families per floor, 1909.	33	68	40	3	..	144
1910.	22	89	14	7	..	132
Total.....	55	157	54	10	..	276
4 families per floor, 1909.	107	194	80	4	..	385
1910.	46	261	44	7	..	358
Total.....	153	455	124	11	..	743
5 families per floor, 1909.	88	112	6	206
1910.	30	161	10	201
Total.....	118	273	16	407
6 families per floor, 1909.	72	63	9	144
1910.	41	70	9	120
Total.....	113	133	18	264
More than 6 per floor, 1909	114	17	5	136
More than 6 per floor, 1910	50	15	1	66
Total.....	164	32	6	202
Total, 1909.....	450	891	1,002	240	4	2,587
Total, 1910.....	217	964	561	203	1	1,946
Total.....	667	1,855	1,563	443	5	4,533

It will be noted that in Manhattan only about one-tenth of the tenements had one or two families per floor, in The Bronx one-half, in Brooklyn four-fifths, in Queens all but one-twentieth, in Richmond all.

In Manhattan, however, less than one-sixtieth of the tenements had one family per floor, in The Bronx about one-eighteenth, in Brooklyn over one-fifth, in Queens one-eighth, in Richmond two-fifths.

Height of Buildings by Stories for Which Plans Were Filed During 1909 and 1910.

		Total.	2-story.	3-story.	4-story.	5-story.	6-story.	More than 6-story.
Manhattan,	1909	450	..	1	3	64	309	73
	1910	217	3	38	119	57
Total	667	..	1	6	102	428	130
The Bronx,	1909	891	1	59	302	445	84	..
	1910	964	1	25	309	567	62	..
Total	1,855	2	84	611	1,012	146	..
Brooklyn,	1909	1,002	58	496	416	15	17	..
	1910	561	38	249	252	7	12	3
Total	1,563	2	84	611	1,012	146	..
Queens,	1909	240	90	124	25	1
	1910	203	48	126	29
Total	443	138	250	54	1
Richmond,	1909	4	1	2	1
	1910	1	1
Total	5	2	2	1
New York City,	1909	2,587	150	682	736	525	420	74
New York City,	1910	1,946	88	400	593	612	193	60
Total	4,533	238	1,082	1,329	1,137	613	134

Section Below 14th Street.

Including Wards Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15 and 17.

Area.	Percentage of Manhattan.	Density per Acre.	Percentage of Greater New York.
2,418.5 A.	17.22	1.15
Population, 1905.			
742,135	35.13	306.8	18.48
Population 1910.			
769,300	32.99	318.	16.13

Industrial Condition, 1906.

Assembly Districts Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 14 and 16.

Area.	Percentage of Manhattan.	Percentage of Greater New York.
2,717 A.	19.35	1.29
No. of Workers.		
321,488	66.71	48.50

Manhattan.

Tenements of Indicated Number of Stories in Height in Wards of Manhattan and 23d Ward of The Bronx.

Ward.	1 story.	2 stories.	3 stories.	4 stories.	5 stories.	6 stories.	7 stories.	8 stories.	9 stories.	10 stories.	11 stories.	12 stories.	13 stories.	14 stories.	15 stories.	16 stories.
1.	53	15	75	149	115	46	5
2.	1
3.	24	35	30
4.	58	52	113	167	152	53	1
5.	39	97	61	41	9
6.	11	13	21	8	6
7.	56	123	316	266	655	366	6	22
8.	39	330	618	153	163	82	10
9.	4	305	1,512	619	473	90	3
10.	88	89	147	124	565	224	12
11.	73	59	350	396	751	492	9
12.	298	687	55,182	3,595	6,335	1,081	259	18	9	7	2	3
13.	45	53	151	142	416	165	6
14.	1	45	133	112	263	109	16
15.	67	414	356	142	57	14	1	2	1	33
16.	263	237	883	1,112	550	47	18	7
17.	87	568	648	804	284	11	1	1
18.	65	147	595	1,075	727	168	18	2	2	5	..	1
19.	500	473	847	2,589	6,033	3,549	620	59	17	12	9	6	3	2
20.	133	174	930	1,317	770	44	91
21.	125	277	786	1,962	864	142	36	17	..	5	3	3	1
22.	265	550	1,875	3,841	3,021	246	188	21	29	14	6	22	3	5	9	1
The Bronx.																
23.	1,725	3,928	3,316	1,380	1,505	306	1

A Comparison of the Proportion of Blocks that are Built Upon Solidly or that Have Only a Specified Proportion of the Site Not Built Upon.

- (a) In Manhattan, by sections.
 (b) In part of the Twenty-third Ward of The Bronx.
 (c) In Brooklyn, by sections.

Sections.	Solid.	Under 5%	5-10%	11-15%	16-20%	21-30%	Over 30%
Manhattan.							
1. Below Cortlandt and Maiden Lane.....	8	45	18	3	3	1
Per cent. total section..	11.42	64.3	25.7	4.3	4.3	1.4
2. Between Cortlandt and Maiden lane and Chambers, New Chambers and James Slip	13	113	16	9	1	3	5
Per cent. total section..	8.34	76.9	10.9	6.1	0.7	2.0	3.4
3. Between Chambers and James Slip and Canal, Division and Grand..	36	100	46	21	28	36	27
Per cent. total section..	13.95	38.8	17.8	8.1	10.9	13.9	10.5
4. Between Canal, Division and Grand and Houston streets	7	16	14	22	75	86	31
Per cent. total section.	2.86	6.6	5.7	9.0	30.7	35.0	12.7

Sections.	Solid.	Under 5%	5-10%	11-15%	16-20%	21-30%	Over 30%
5. Between Houston and 8th st., Christopher, St. Marks pl. and Green- wich ave.	8	27	22	29	29	43	9
Per cent. total section..	5.03	17.0	13.8	18.2	18.2	27.1	5.7
6. Between 8th st., St. Marks pl., Greenwich ave. and Christopher st. and 23d st.	11	39	34	23	52	117	25
Per cent. total section..	3.72	13.5	11.7	7.9	17.9	40.4	8.6
7. Between 23d and 42d..	14	32	48	32	48	91	18
Per cent. total section..	5.18	11.9	17.9	11.9	17.8	33.8	6.7
8. Between 42d and 125th.	20	22	32	34	153	539	170
Per cent. total section..	2.11	2.3	3.3	3.56	16.2	56.8	18.0
9. North of 125th.	2	9	44	97	9
Per cent. total section..	1.2	5.6	27.3	60.3	5.6
Bronx.							
Part of 23d Ward, bounded by Harlem River, 149th st., Melrose ave., Webster ave. and 170th st.	7	4	9	11	17	79	130½
Per cent. total section..	2.79	1.56	3.49	5.27	6.60	30.68	50.67
Brooklyn.							
Ward.							
First	14	7	4	9	14	22	30
Second	27	5	12	7	9	13.5	26.5
Third	1.8	6.2	4.5	10	9.5	26.0	42.0
Fourth	3.5	7.5	5.0	8.5	6.2	29.0	40.3
Fifth	24	8.0	9.5	10.0	8.5	21.0	19
Sixth	11.0	12.0	7.0	2.5	7.5	22.0	38.0
Seventh	9.0	9.5	6.0	3.3	3.2	31.0	38.0
Thirteenth	11.0	7.3	5.5	9.3	12.5	37.4	17.0
Fourteenth	7.7	5.0	5.5	4.3	10.3	27.1	40.1
Fifteenth	5.8	6.2	4.9	8.1	3.5	22.5	49.0
Sixteenth	6.3	6.3	5.1	5.1	3.2	23.0	51.0
Seventeenth	2.2	5.5	5.5	5.8	7.0	39.9	34.1
Nineteenth	3.8	2.6	2.6	3.8	9.0	51.9	26.3
Twentieth	2.0	4.1	3.9	8.5	10.5	26.4	44.6
Twenty-sixth	1.0	...	1.0	0.6	0.5	4.4	92.5

Proportion of Total Number of Persons Accommodated in Tenements Erected in
Each Ward of Brooklyn from July, 1902, to December 31, 1907, inclusive.

Ward.	Persons.	Ward.	Persons.
1.....	360	18.....	8,775
2.....	..	19.....	4,860
3.....	..	20.....	689
4.....	734	21.....	12,218
5.....	432	22.....	6,952
6.....	778	23.....	3,294
7.....	2,665	24.....	18,796
8.....	11,884	25.....	8,068
9.....	5,148	26.....	60,062
10.....	486	27.....	10,804
11.....	50	28.....	15,867
12.....	126	29.....	6,322
13.....	5,341	30.....	3,842
14.....	882	31.....	648
15.....	3,128	32.....	4,689
16.....	9,891		
17.....	5,395	Total	213,178

Important Blocks in Lower Bronx Having in 1905 a Population of 1,000 or Over.

	Popu- lation, 1905.	Popu- lation, 1910.	Increase or Decrease, 1905-1910.	Density Per Acre, 1905.	Density Per Acre, 1910.	Increase or Decrease in Density Per Acre, 1905-1910.
1. East 135th and 136th streets, St. Anns and Cypress avenues	1,191	1,550	339	305	392	87
2. East 134th and 135th streets, Willis avenue and Brown place	1,049	1,385	336	278	367	89
3. East 135th and 136th streets, Willis and Alexander avenues.	1,075	1,104	29	381	392	11
4. East 135th and 136th streets, Lincoln and Alexander avenues	1,251	1,031	-220	495	408	-87
5. East 137th and 138th streets, Willis and Alexander avenues.	1,124	1,181	57	399	419	20
6. East 136th and 137th streets, Willis and Alexander avenues.	1,224	1,193	-31	434	423	-11
7. East 136th and 137th streets, Willis avenue and Brown place	1,787	2,285	468	474	607	133
8. East 137th and 138th streets, Willis avenue and Brown place	1,831	1,788	-43	488	474	-14
9. East 138th and 139th streets, Willis and Alexander avenues.	1,676	1,682	6	595	597	2
10. East 138th and 139th streets, Willis and Brook avenues....	1,791	2,255	464	368	461	93
11. East 140th and 141st streets, Willis and Brook avenues....	1,601	2,298	697	345	495	150
12. East 144th and 145th streets, Willis and Brook avenues....	1,306	1,630	324	313	391	78
13. East 143d and 144th streets, Willis and Brook avenues....	1,092	1,059	-47	254	246	-9
14. East 146th and 147th streets, Willis and Brook avenues....	1,553	1,719	166	393	436	43
15. East 145th and 146th streets, St. Anns and Brook avenues..	1,024	1,309	285	425	544	119
16. East 147th and 148th streets, St. Anns and Brook avenues..	1,358	1,303	-55	564	541	-23
17. East 146th and 147th streets, St. Anns and Brook avenues..	1,163	1,466	303	483	610	127
18. East 141st and 142d streets, St. Anns and Brook avenues..	1,099	1,032	-67	335	314	-21
19. East 142d and 143d streets, Willis and Brook avenues....	1,497	1,348	-149	340	306	-34
20. East 149th and 150th streets, Morris and Park avenues....	1,204	1,270	66	478	504	26
21. East 148th and 149th streets, Morris and Cortlandt avenues.	1,374	1,634	260	356	423	67
22. East 150th and 151st streets, Morris and Cortlandt avenues.	1,059	1,315	256	223	278	55
23. East 149th and 150th streets, Morris and Cortlandt avenues.	1,737	1,720	-17	483	478	-5
24. East 154th and 155th streets, Morris and Cortlandt avenues.	1,392	1,694	302	348	421	73
25. East 153d and 154th streets, Morris and Cortlandt avenues.	1,142	1,272	130	285	318	33
26. Westchester avenue, 156th st., Eagle and St. Anns avenues.	1,362	1,474	112	287	310	23
27. Westchester ave., East 149th st., Brook and St. Anns avenues	2,287	2,235	-1235	236	513	277
28. Kelly st., Westchester avenue, Wales and Robbins avenues	1,227	1,633	406	476	633	157
Total for 28 blocks.....	37,241	42,897	5,656	360	414	54

Study of Blocks in the Sixteenth Ward of Brooklyn Having in 1905 a Density of 300 or Over an Acre.

	Popula- tion 1905.	Popula- tion 1910.	Increase or Decrease, 1905-1910.	Density Per Acre, 1905.	Density Per Acre, 1910.	Increase or Decrease Per Acre, 1905-1910.
1. Varet, Cooke, Morrell and Humboldt st.....	1,082	1,110	28	376	385	9
2. Scholes, Meserole, Lorimer and Union ave.....	1,114	1,260	146	309	350	41
3. Montrose, Johnson and Graham aves and Humboldt st.....	1,335	943	*92	360	327	*33
4. Boerum st., Johnson ave., Leonard and Lorimer sts.....	1,253	1,196	*57	391	373	*18
5. Boerum st., Johnson ave., Humboldt st., Graham aves.....	1,157	1,123	*34	402	389	*13
6. Boerum st., Johnson ave., Humboldt st and Bushwick ave.....	1,239	1,312	73	430	455	25
7. Boerum and McKibben sts., Manhattan ave. and Leonard st.....	1,037	993	*44	360	343	*17
8. Boerum, McKibben, Humboldt and Graham aves.....	1,054	1,557	503	366	540	174
9. Boerum and McKibben sts., Humboldt st and Bushwick ave.....	950	1,425	475	330	495	165
10. Siegel and McKibben st., Leonard and Lorimer sts.....	976	1,045	69	339	362	23
11. Siegel st., McKibben st., Leonard st. and Manhattan ave.....	983	1,263	280	341	438	97
12. Siegel and McKibben sts., Graham and Manhattan aves.....	1,194	1,065	*129	415	379	*36
13. Siegel and McKibben sts., Humboldt and Bushwick aves.....	969	1,244	275	336	431	95
14. Siegel, Moore, Manhattan ave. and Leonard st.....	1,221	1,234	13	425	428	3
15. Siegel, Moore, Manhattan and Graham ave.....	1,049	927	*122	364	321	*43
16. Siegel, Moore, Humboldt and Graham ave.....	1,121	1,138	17	390	395	5
17. Siegel, Moore, Humboldt and Morrell.....	934	1,176	242	324	408	84
18. Varet, Moore, Leonard sts., Manhattan ave and Broadway.....	1,187	1,057	*130	423	367	*56
19. Varet, Moore, Humboldt and Graham.....	1,004	876	*128	350	304	*46
20. Varet, Moore, Humboldt and Morrell sts.....	1,116	993	*123	388	344	*44
21. Varet, Moore and Bushwick ave. and Morrill st.....	661	500	*161	390	294	*96
22. Cooke, Debevoise, Bushwick aves. and Morrill st.....	918	1,259	341	319	437	118
23. Varet, Bushwick and Morrell aves.....	898	957	59	345	368	23
Total for 23 blocks	24,152	26,453	2,301	365	401 •	36

*Indicates decrease.

*Summary of Tenement House Law for Cities of the First Class in New York State
Relative to Size of Rooms and Overcrowding.*

70. Rooms. Size of.—Excepting water closet compartments and bathrooms in each apartment there shall be at least one room containing not less than one hundred and twenty square feet of floor space, and each other room shall contain at least seventy square feet of floor area. Each room shall be in every part not less than nine feet high from the finished floor to the finished ceiling, provided that an attic room need be nine feet high in but one-half its area.

71. Alcove rooms must conform to all the requirements of other rooms.

97. Basements and Cellars.—No room in the basement or cellar of any tenement shall be occupied for living purposes except under conditions stipulated; such room shall be at least nine feet high in every part from the floor to the ceiling and the same regulations as to floor area are in force.

There are about 25,000 basement dwellings in New York.

112. Overcrowding.—No room in any tenement house shall be so overcrowded that there shall be afforded less than four hundred cubic feet of air to each adult, and two hundred cubic feet of air to each child under twelve years of age occupying such room.

Under this law a three-room apartment with a height of nine feet in the clear may consist of:

Only 260 square feet floor area.

Only 2,340 cubic feet.

One room 10 by 12 feet, and two rooms 7 by 9 feet.

In this apartment may live legally two adults over 12 years of age and six minors under 12 years of age, a total of eight persons in three rooms, or two and two-thirds per room—one and one-half persons per room is a reasonable standard, therefore, the law permits nearly 50 per cent. of overcrowding.

References on Percentage of Lot Area to be Occupied in Other American and in Foreign Cities.

New Jersey.—No tenement house can occupy more than 90 per cent. of a corner lot, or more than 70 per cent. of an interior lot.

The Connecticut law, Cleveland, Baltimore and Washington all limit the occupancy of corner lots to 90 per cent.

Chicago permits lots bounded on three sides to occupy 90 per cent., but limits all other corner lots to 85 per cent.

San Francisco provides that tenements may occupy 95 per cent. of corner lots 50 feet or less in width, but only 75 per cent. of the excess over 50 feet of other corner lots.

Connecticut, Chicago, San Francisco and Washington limit the occupancy of interior lots to 75 per cent., Baltimore to 70 per cent., and Cleveland to 65 per cent.

London Yards.—There must be provided at the rear of every dwelling house an open space exclusively belonging to it of an aggregate extent of not less than 150 square feet. In all cases the open space must be at least 10 feet wide and extend throughout the entire width of the building. In the case of corner lots the council may permit the erection of buildings not exceeding 30 feet in height upon such part of the space in the rear as they may think fit, provided they are satisfied that its erection will not interfere unduly with the access of light and air to neighboring buildings.

Courts.—Where a court is wholly or in part open at the top but inclosed on every side, and constructed for the purpose of admitting light or air, and the depth from the eaves or top of the parapet wall to the ceiling of the ground story exceeds the length or width of the court, the owner of the building must make adequate provisions for ventilation by means of communication with the outer air.

Glasgow. Open Spaces.—Provision for open spaces is secured by requiring that in front of at least one-half of every window in sleeping apartments there must be an open space equal to at least three-fourths of the height of the wall in which the window is placed from the floor of the apartment to the roof of the building, measuring such space in a straight line perpendicular to the plane of the window.

Manchester.—Closed courts or areas open only at the top, into which windows open, must be equal to at least one-half of the height measured from the window sill to the eaves or top of the parapet of the opposite wall. If one side of a court or area is open, windows opposite the opening will satisfy the requirements.

Toronto, Canada—Open Spaces. Every tenement or dwelling house must be so located and erected on the respective premises as to provide at least 10 per cent. of the area of the lot free from all obstruction from ground to sky, but in no event

shall such area be less than 300 square feet. Angular corner lots, abutting lots and extend from street to street may be excluded from the above restrictions.

The proportion of the lot area to be occupied by tenements varies in different districts of most large German cities, just as the height and number of stories does, and lower tenements and larger yards are required in the outlying sections of cities where land values are low.

The proportion of the lot area to remain unoccupied, i. e., devoted to courts and yards, ranges as follows:

Munich—From $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$.

Cologne—From $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{5}$.

Frankfort-on-the-Main—From $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$.

Dusseldorf—From $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{3}{5}$.

Mannheim—From $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{5}$.

Hamburg—Before every wall of a building containing windows not lying on the street there must be left a space equal to one-third of the height of the wall, in the town, and two-thirds in the suburbs, and this space must have an area of 211.3 square feet.

Vienna—Usually 15 per cent. of the lot area must be devoted to yards and courts. In special cases different regulations are prescribed by the building police.

The New English Town Planning Act permits cities to restrict the number of cottages to from 10 to 20 per acre.

Frankfort-on-the-Main ranges from a maximum height of 65 feet 6 inches, not to exceed the width of the street by more than 6 feet 6 inches, to three stories, not to exceed a height of 29 feet 6 inches, on streets of this width, otherwise the height may not exceed the width of the street.

Cologne ranges from five stories and mansard in the centre of the city to two stories and mansard.

Dusseldorf ranges from five stories to three stories.

Vienna ranges from six stories to three stories, and under certain conditions to two stories.

London—The height of dwelling houses (any building used for human habitation) must not exceed 80 feet, exclusive of the stories in the roof, without the consent of the council. If a dwelling house is erected on a street less than 50 feet wide, its height must not exceed the distance from the front wall to the opposite side of the street.

With reference to the height of such buildings in relation to the space at the rear, London employs the following novel plan:

An imaginary line called "the horizontal line" is drawn at right angles to the roadway through the middle of the building to intersect the boundary of the open space at the rear of the house furthest from the roadway. Then a second imaginary line called "the diagonal line" is drawn from this point of intersection above and in the same vertical plane as the horizontal line and inclined at an angle of $63\frac{1}{2}$ degrees with it.

No part of the building can extend above this diagonal line except chimneys, dormers, gables, turrets or other architectural ornaments. Further instructions for drawing the diagonal line are included in the law for exceptionally irregular sites.

Glasgow—No tenement or building used as a dwelling house shall be erected, the front walls of which shall exceed in height the distance between the building lines of the street.

Manchester—Buildings on streets less than 30 feet wide are limited to two stories. On streets not less than 36 feet wide they are limited to three stories.

Liverpool—Tenements facing on a street must not exceed in height the width of the street. Houses built on a court must not exceed 30 feet in height, nor contain more than two stories above the ground floor. Liverpool also adopts the same plan as London with reference to the height of buildings in relation to the space at the rear.

Paris—Height is determined by the width of the street. Width of street, 7.8 metres (25 feet 7 inches) or under, height of building, 12 metres (39 feet 4 inches); width of street between 7.8 metres (25 feet 7 inches) and 9.74 metres (31 feet 11 inches), height of building, 15 metres (49 feet 2 inches); width of street between 9.74 and 20 metres (65 feet 7 inches), height of building, 18 metres (59 feet); width of street, 20 metres, height of building, 20 metres (Act of July 23, 1884).

This same act provides that buildings in no case may contain more than seven stories. The height of the first story must be not less than 2.8 metres (9 feet 2 inches), and the height of other stories not less than 2.6 metres (8 feet 6 inches).

Berlin—The height of houses fronting on a street may equal but not exceed the width of the street between building lines, but they may not be higher than 72.18

feet. The rear buildings must never exceed in height by more than 19 feet 6 inches the width of the open space in front of them. Buildings intended for tenement houses must not exceed five stories nor the floor of the top story be more than 57.4 feet above the sidewalk.

Toronto, Canada—All buildings intended to be used as apartment or tenement houses exceeding 55 feet in height must be of the first-class fireproof construction throughout. No tenement can exceed 100 feet in height. No wooden or frame building intended for human habitation can be erected to exceed 35 feet in height. No tenement or other dwelling house can be erected on a street less than 35 feet wide.

Hamburg—The usual height of a building may not exceed 97 feet 6 inches in the case of gable, and 78 feet in the case of other walls, while the front wall may not be higher than the width of the street in the suburbs, though in the town and St. Pauli it may exceed the width of the street by 19 feet 6 inches.

References on Size of Rooms and Overcrowding in Other American and in Foreign Cities—Rooms, Area, Height, etc.

New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, Chicago and Baltimore all require that every apartment shall contain at least one room with not less than 120 square feet of floor area, and that all other rooms except water-closets and bathrooms must contain at least 70 square feet of floor area.

Cleveland and San Francisco require one room of 120 square feet floor area, the rest to contain 80 square feet; and Boston requires one with 120 square feet, and the others to contain not less than 90 square feet floor area.

New York, New Jersey and Baltimore require habitable rooms to be 9 feet in the clear from floor to ceiling, although Baltimore allows cellar rooms to be 8 feet.

The Connecticut law, Chicago, Boston, Cleveland and San Francisco require them to be 8 feet 6 inches.

The Pennsylvania law, St. Louis, Providence and Grand Rapids require them to be 8 feet.

Cities uniformly require attic rooms to be the required height only throughout one-half their area.

New York, New Jersey, Chicago and Baltimore make the same requirements for alcove rooms as for other rooms. Boston requires an opening equal to 80 per cent. of the area of the side of the room, to the main room, and a window at least 15 square feet in area. Cleveland requires the opening to be equal to one-half the side of the room, but never less than twice the width of an interior door.

In London—Every habitable room except rooms wholly or partly in the roof must be at least 8 feet 6 inches in height. Rooms wholly or partly in the roof must be at least 8 feet in height.

As regards buildings on its own property the London county council requires the minimum superficial area of a roomed tenement to be at least 144 square feet. A two-roomed tenement must have one room of 144 square feet and one of at least 96 square feet in area; a three-roomed tenement, one room 144 square feet, two rooms 96 square feet. For a four-roomed tenement the fourth room must contain at least 100 square feet.

Glasgow—Every room on the basement or street floors of a tenement must be at least 9 feet 6 inches in height, and all others, except attic rooms, 9 feet. Attic rooms must be 8 feet high throughout one-half their area. Cellar rooms must be at least one-half the level of the street.

Manchester—Every room except bathrooms or sculleries or attic rooms must be 9 feet high. Bathrooms and sculleries must be at least 8 feet high, and attic rooms must be 9 feet throughout two-thirds their area and not less than 5 feet throughout the other third.

Liverpool—Every house (apartment) must have at least one living room which contains 120 superficial feet and at least half in number of the sleeping rooms containing 108 square feet, provided that in the case of dwelling houses "with a frontage of 15 feet" and containing six rooms, the rooms used as bedrooms shall not be less than in the case of the first bedroom, 120 square feet; in the case of the second, 95 square feet and in the case of the third, 72 square feet. All rooms must be 9 feet high from the ceiling.

Berlin—Habitable rooms must be at least 8.2 feet in height and the floor not more than 3.2 feet below the level of the ground.

Mr. Lawrence Veiller, in his "Model Tenement House Laws," suggests that in each apartment there shall be at least one room containing not less than 150 square feet of floor area, and each other room shall contain at least 90 square feet of floor area, and each room shall be in every part not less than 9 feet high from the finished floor to the finished ceiling.

Toronto—Every sleeping room must contain at least 400 cubic feet for every person over 12, and 200 cubic feet for every person under 12 years of age. The Medical Health Officer, or any Sanitary Inspector, may enter any tenement or lodging house at any time of day or night, where there is reason to believe there is overcrowding.

In Mannheim (Germany) every adult and child must have at least in living rooms 343 cubic feet, and in the dwelling or apartment as a whole 686 cubic feet, and similar regulations exist for most large German cities.

Reference to the Heights of Tenements Permitted in Other American and in Foreign Cities.

New Jersey, Chicago, Baltimore and Cleveland limit the height of tenements to one and one-half the width of the widest street on which the building stands.

San Francisco places no limit on fireproof structures, but limits all others to one and one-half times the width of the street.

Boston places the limit at two and one-half times the width of the street, but permits no building to exceed 125 feet.

St. Louis limits all tenements to 150 feet, and those on streets 60 feet wide or less, to two and one-half times the width of the street.

Washington limits all tenements to the width of the street between building lines, but never to exceed 90 feet.

Providence limits all tenements to 90 feet, unless fireproof.

Rochester permits no tenement to exceed in height four times its horizontal dimension.

St. Paul and Toledo apparently place no limit on the height, but let the height determine the construction. In Manchester, England, where the street is not over 30 feet in width, the buildings are not allowed to exceed two stories in height, while on streets 30 to 36 feet in width dwelling houses may be three stories high. In Liverpool, Glasgow, and Berlin, tenements are limited in height to the width of the street, while in Edinburgh they are limited to one and one-quarter times the width of the street.

Most large German cities, with the exception of Berlin, have been divided into districts, each with its own building regulations, and any comparison must be with these districts. The general rule has been to restrict as large a part of the city as possible to two or three-story buildings. The following are typical ranges in the number of stories permitted front buildings. The back buildings must usually be a story lower than the front buildings where rear buildings are permitted.

Munich ranges from five stories, and the mansard to two stories and a mansard, not to exceed 40 feet in height.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON FACTORIES OF THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION, PREPARED BY MR. JOHN ADIKES, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee have held four hearings and heard nearly a score of witnesses in these meetings, while the subject of the distribution of factories has been touched upon in a large number of meetings of other Committees by speakers who appreciate the necessity of such distribution if the evils of congestions are to be avoided by the distribution of the people themselves. In addition, they have made an investigation of the distribution of factories in 1906 and 1909, while members of the Committee took a trip around the water fronts of the City through the courtesy of the Dock Department in one of the department's boats, and studied the opportunity for the development of factory sites. The chairman of the Committee and the chairman of the Commission also spent an afternoon visiting the South Brooklyn waterfront district, and went through the Bush Terminals.

DISTRIBUTION OF FACTORIES IN 1906.

The Committee, owing to the absence of appropriation, has not been able to make an exhaustive study of the distribution of factories by districts in 1910, but a careful study of such distribution was made in 1906 by assembly districts in Manhattan, and wards in Brooklyn and The Bronx, and the total number of factories started in New York City since that time has been a relatively small percentage, so that the facts found at that time are substantially correct at present. The most significant facts were that the Sixth Assembly District in Manhattan, in the centre of the island, below 11th st., and containing less than one-thousandth of the area of the City, had nevertheless 2,349 factories, with 56,589 workers in factories during the year, or 8.44 per cent of the total number of workers in factories in New York City. (These figures were secured from the records of the State Department of Labor, and the number of people in factories is the largest reported at any time during the

year covered.) The concentration of factories below 14th st., and 20th west of Broadway in Manhattan in that year (1906), is nearly as striking as the concentration in the Sixth Assembly District, since in this area of 2,717 acres, a little over one-seventy-sixth of the area of New York City, there were reported 321,488 workers in factories out of a total for the year of 662,749 in Greater New York. There were below 14th st., 10 factory blocks, each having over 2,400, and one 4,007 workers in factories. Several of the most important factory blocks are located in the centre of the island. Of the 171 important blocks which Mr. William J. Wilgus, in his brief for a subway for freight, shows were the chief shipping blocks in Manhattan, 84 were located in the district bounded by Barclay st., West Broadway, University place, E. 14th st., Lafayette st., Marion, Elm, Chambers and Broadway, that is just west of the centre of Manhattan island below 14th st.

The sites of the factory blocks having the greatest number of workers are assessed from \$500,000 to about \$900,000 per acre. It is extremely significant that the greatest congestion of population in tenements is in the districts immediately adjoining this concentration of factories, and it has been the unanimous evidence of those that have appeared before your Committee that workers follow factories and keep very near to their places of work. In spite, however, of the fact that there was the phenomenal concentration of factories in 1906, there were very few wards in Brooklyn and assembly districts in Manhattan in which most of the twelve classes of factories into which the State Department of Labor divides these factories of the State were not represented. That is, manufacturing of different kinds was found to be feasible quite generally throughout the City.

A table showing the distribution of factories is appended as part of the report of your Committee.

CONDITIONS IN FACTORIES.

The Committee have not been able to visit personally many of the factories of the City, but have found most unhealthy conditions in some of the factories, dark rooms, inadequate protection of moving machinery, etc., while the State Department of Labor reports for the year ending September 30, 1909, that ten orders to properly light work rooms were issued in New York City; eight compliances with such orders were reported, while 948 orders to properly light halls, stairs and water closets were issued in New York City, and that 899 compliances with such orders were reported. These orders represent practically the number of cases in which generally the non-compliance with the requirements of the law in regard to these specific items were found by the Deputy Factory Inspectors.

COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF MANUFACTURING IN NEW YORK CITY.

It is significant that the total number of factories in the Boroughs of Manhattan and The Bronx (County of New York), increased materially from 1906 to 1909, as shown in the table appended, so that nearly four-fifths of the new factories started in the City during this time located in Manhattan and The Bronx and the overwhelming majority were in Manhattan, while only one-eighth were in Brooklyn, and one-thirtieth were in Queens, 2,438 out of 3,060 having located in Manhattan. A study has been made of the total number of persons for whom accommodations were provided in factories constructed during the years 1902 to 1907, inclusive. While provisions were made allowing 28 square feet for each occupant for 197,238 workers in Brooklyn (from 1903 to 1907), accommodations were provided for only 137,034 in Manhattan (from 1902 to 1907), 24,000 of this number being above 8th st.

The important advantages of manufacturing in Manhattan are:

First: The large labor market and proximity to the market for the goods.

The most important disadvantages of manufacturing in Manhattan are:

First: High cost of land.

Second: High cost of insurance.

Third: Cost of drayage through the crowded streets of the City.

Fourth: The high rentals.

During the three years from 1906 to 1909, a good many factories have removed from New York City. Some, however, have gone from other Boroughs as well as Manhattan. The John L. Mott Iron Works removed their factory from The Bronx to New Jersey. They employed in their factory in The Bronx between 500 and 600 men, and most of them have left New York and gone to New Jersey to be near their work. They assign the following reasons for their removal:

"We removed our factory for various economic reasons, the high cost of land, taxes being, of course, factors; also the strictness of the City ordinance as to the smoke nuisance; regarding wages, they are the same."

The Henry R. Worthington Co., Worthington pumping engines and hydraulic

machinery, removed from Brooklyn, and assign the following reasons for their removal:

"We would say that we removed our factory from Brooklyn four or five years ago because the natural growth of the business required more space than we could obtain there at that time. We built new works at Harrison, N. J., where we occupy over thirty acres of ground. Our pay-roll was about \$30,000 a week, and we presume that nearly all of the workmen moved to Newark, of which Harrison is a suburb."

On the other hand a varied line of factories have been coming into the City and locating in different sections.

The secretary of the Erie Basin Board of Trade states that during the past year there have been located in the Erie Basin twenty factories of different kinds, and that none have moved away from the district during that time. The Bush Terminal Company have within the past few years secured the location of many factories in their model plants in South Brooklyn. Questions were sent to a number of manufacturers asking suggestions as to the reasons for the locating of factories in Manhattan and pre-eminently what kind of manufacturing can be more economically carried on in the Boroughs outside of Manhattan than in these Boroughs. The consensus of opinion as to the kind of manufacturing that can be economically carried on in the Boroughs outside of Manhattan is contained in the following statements submitted to the Committee:

"No factory, the output of which is not entirely meant for local consumption, should be located on Manhattan unless its plant is along the waterfront or near the principal freight railway depots. All manufacturing plants which send their produce, or the greater part of it, to out-of-town points, belong in the outside Boroughs, because every truck sent out from the heart of New York City to the shipping terminal adds to the congestion of our streets, and every employee engaged by such a manufacturer is tempted to locate with his family in a tenement near his workbench. This refers particularly to the wholesale clothing and other textile branches. Incidentally, the proximity of factories to tenement houses leads to the ultimate establishment, surreptitious and otherwise, of smaller plants within the living quarters."

That the proximity of factories to tenements leads to the ultimate establishment, surreptitious and otherwise, of smaller plants within the living quarters, is evidenced by the fact that the Sixth Assembly District, as has been noted, in central Manhattan contains a very large proportion of the total number of workers in factories in Greater New York, approximately one-twelfth in 1906, and had the greatest density of workers per acre, while to the east in the old Eighth and Tenth Assembly Districts was the greatest density of population per acre, averaging 649 per acre in 1905. A large proportion of the tenement manufacture licenses, were in these districts.

Mr. Frank Bailey, of the Title Guarantee Trust Company of Brooklyn, has also indicated the economical distribution of factories in New York City as follows:

"I believe that practically all kinds of factories, except the most light manufactures, can be carried on more economically in the Boroughs outside of Manhattan than in the Borough of Manhattan.

"Second, it is necessary that the factory be contiguous to existing labor centres or accessible to existing labor centres, and they can not be moved here and there at will.

"It will be seen that there has been a really large increase in the factories located in the Borough of Brooklyn, and I think the tendency is stronger now than ever before.

"The best method to secure the removal from Manhattan is to offer economic advantages which cannot be obtained in the Borough of Manhattan."

As a matter of fact, however, in 1906, of the nearly one-half of the total number of workers in factories in Greater New York located below 14th st. in Manhattan, one-half were engaged in the manufacture of clothing, millinery and in laundries, and nearly one-sixth in the manufacture of printing and paper goods, and one-ninth in the manufacture of metals, machines and conveyances, a total, respectively, of 155,558, 51,909 and 37,253. On the other hand, there were in Brooklyn only 26,935 persons engaged in the manufacture of clothing, millinery and in laundries, or one-fifth of the total engaged in manufacturing in the Borough; 9,358 in printing and the manufacture of paper goods, and 35,942 in the manufacture of metals, machines, and conveyances, a little over one-fourth of the total number of 132,466 workers in the factories of the Boroughs.

BELT LINES AS A MEANS OF DISTRIBUTING FACTORIES.

It is significant that many of the large cities of the country have recognized the necessity of belt lines to co-ordinate the different railroads carrying freight in the

city, and provide for transfer from one line to another and to ensure the prompt delivery of freight.

The belt line of Chicago, for instance, connects all trunk lines entering Chicago, so that industries located on the belt railway of Chicago are thereby enabled to use any or all lines in the conduct of their business and at Chicago rates. The Belt Railway Company claim that ground values are lower at present on the belt railway of Chicago than in many congested sections, and that they furnish facilities for handling less than carload shipments, which they extend as necessity demands.

St. Louis also has a connecting belt line which has proven of enormous value in manufacturing and the better distribution of freight.

The Metropolitan Improvements Commission of Boston stated that in their judgment the purposes of a belt line railroad might be one or all of several, as follows:

First—To detour traffic around a densely populated district.

Second—To provide flexibility of operation in the interchange of traffic, among and between the various lines intersected.

Third—To open up new territory for industrial activity.

They aver, however, that in their judgment, although a belt line is feasible for other cities, it is impracticable for Boston, since by reason of its location as a tide-water terminal Boston does not lie in the path of any great amount of all-rail through traffic. Through business in Boston is to a great extent strictly port tonnage, for transshipment in vessels. The all-rail through business consists of traffic in commodities to northern and southern New England points, from manufacturing cities within a radius of about 15 miles of Boston, where the obvious routing on a minimum mileage basis is through Boston to destination.

The conditions in New York City, however, with freight lines to the North and East, and with several trunk lines West, connected by admirable float service, is entirely different. The statement of the Boston Metropolitan Improvements Commission in reference to economy in production is most significant, as follows:

"The sites of future industries which shall represent the greatest efficiency in production, must, as a rule, be on the waterfront, at the foci of the arteries of transportation."

The City of New Orleans has also constructed a public belt railroad, which has been in operation for several years. The official description is as follows:

"The Public Belt Railroad Commission was organized by city ordinance and is a municipal board. The line is constructed along the river front of the city and has twenty-two miles of double tracks, which serves all public wharves and a number of private industries; the switching rate is \$2 per car on all business to or from any point on the Public Belt Railroad. The switching charge applies only one way, that is, it is chargeable on the initial move, the return move being gratis."

This belt line was constructed by appropriations from the funds of the city and has been fairly successful.

Various suggestions have been made to the Commission with reference to a provision of a similar belt line for New York City, and a definite plan has been proposed by Mr. John M. Paris, as follows:

"A careful study as to the needs of freight traffic leads me constantly to the conclusion that the best solution of the problem is by the construction of a belt line whereby all railroads leading into New York City may be connected, and likewise the connecting of this belt line with the principal water front property of the city. If a line was constructed leading through the various manufacturing cities of New Jersey, like Hackensack, Paterson, Passaic, Newark and Elizabeth, and across onto Staten Island, following the shore front of Staten Island sufficiently depressed to not interfere with traffic purposes, then under the Narrows and again depressed through the South Brooklyn sections between Coney Island, Bay Ridge and Flatbush to Jamaica Bay, connecting with the present proposed connecting railroad being constructed by the New York, New Haven and Hartford and Pennsylvania Railroads jointly, with traffic arrangements with such road whereby its tracks might become a part of this belt system, and a proper and easy connection in The Bronx of the lines of the New York Central and the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroads, and you have connected up every railroad entering New York City, you have made it easily accessible to lines being built along the East River water front in both the Bronx and Queens, you have connected with the New York Central freight line leading down the westerly side of Manhattan Island, an extension of which either a depressed or an elevated southward would open up the entire North River water front, and in connection with the lines already operating into the Bush Terminal you have made available the water front along Brooklyn's New York Harbor shores and have entirely opened up the great expanse of manufacturing sites around Jamaica Bay. If, in connection with this, the terminus of the Barge Canal could be established in Jamaica

Bay by the cutting of a canal from Flushing Bay through to Jamaica Bay, thus permitting barges going down the North River and through the Harlem River into Long Island Sound to pass directly through to Jamaica Bay without having to pass through the congested East or North Rivers of New York Harbor, and we have established a condition of freight traffic and freight handling in this city unsurpassed by any other city on the Atlantic or Pacific coasts.

"I believe the first and most important step to take in this connection is securing from the city proper appropriation for the improvement of Jamaica Bay, and, if possible, securing the terminus of the Barge Canal in that same harbor. You will recall that the representatives of the various railroads present at the hearing of the committee in the Mayor's room, a few weeks ago, stated that if Jamaica Bay was improved along the lines suggested above, the necessity for a belt line such as suggested above would be imperative, and would likewise be a paying commercial proposition. I do not think there would be any trouble to build such a line with private capital if the Barge Canal should terminate in Jamaica Bay and the bay be properly improved."

Mr. Paris stated that in his judgment the improvement of conditions of freight traffic is the best means of securing a normal distribution of factories throughout the City.

As is well known, Mr. William J. Wilgus, President of the Amsterdam Corporation, has suggested a tunnel for carrying freight in Manhattan, which would involve an initial expense of approximately \$100,000,000. The connecting lines proposed by the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad, to run through from The Bronx across to Randalls and Wards Islands, southeast through Queens, is an important method of securing desired distribution of factories.

It has also been suggested by members of the Produce Exchange who have studied the question through numerous special committees, that it might be possible to utilize the various surface railroads running through Manhattan for freight purposes, moving freight during the night hours, and that this could be done by the formation of a company with an arrangement with the various railroads to pass over their lines. In South Brooklyn the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company operate light freight car lines over their lines and their method is similar to that of the so-called light traffic lines of Germany.

The study made two years ago by Dr. E. E. Pratt of the opportunities for manufacturing, and the reasons for locating factories in Queens, is appended as part of the report of this committee.

Mr. Pratt found that trucking and drayage are regarded as the most economical, and that most manufacturers preferred to hire trucks and save the trouble of keeping their stables, especially when their business does not warrant the keeping of many teams. The essential reasons given by manufacturers for locating in different sections of Brooklyn were tabulated, and in South Brooklyn the majority of the manufacturers in the Bush Terminal gave as their reasons for locating there the transportation facilities. In the vicinity of Brooklyn Bridge the majority of the manufacturers regarded the saving of rent or the cheapness of sites as the most important item and the transportation facilities second.

In Wallabout Market the saving of rent and the cost of site were regarded as most important by the majority of the manufacturers interviewed, and the supply of labor and transportation facilities as next important. Of the firms interviewed in Williamsburg, practically all assigned the saving of rent and the cheapness of sites as the most important items that had led them to locate there.

The report of the State Department of Labor indicates, however, that despite the certain advantages of manufacturing in the boroughs outside of New York City, that the number of factories in Manhattan and the number of workers in Manhattan is actually increasing more rapidly in Manhattan than in any of the other boroughs, since about four-fifths of the increase from 1906 to 1909 were located in Manhattan Island and a large number of them below 14th street in Manhattan.

Mr. Pratt notes, moreover, the following principles which usually obtain:

1. Labor will not follow factories if removed to a considerable distance.
2. Labor will not follow factories to the suburbs unless the neighborhood conditions are attractive and adequate housing facilities are at hand.
3. To ensure a labor supply, the worker should be compensated in definite ways for the losses of city life, by providing recreations, amusements and education for him.
4. Recent investigations which have been made in New York City show that no matter whether the factory is located in the most congested sections of Manhattan or in furthest Brooklyn, the distribution of population bears very close relation to the place of work and to the working conditions. The old theory that congestion is due to the congregation of nationalities who desire to live huddled together in little colonies is fallacious. In studying the distribution of workers in the factories of New

York City, it has been found that in every instance it is the location of the place of work, and not the nationality group, which determines residence. There are deeper and more fundamental causes at work, some of which we have been considering.

Mr. Pratt gives in the following tables the result of his findings:

Italians Working in Manhattan and Brooklyn.

	Living in Brooklyn.	Living in Manhattan, Below 14th St.	Living in Manhattan, Above 14th St.
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
Working in Manhattan....	15.3	61.7	14.4
Working in Brooklyn.....	55.5	34.0	3.8

Distribution of Workers in Manhattan and Brooklyn.

Distance from Work Measured in Time.	Working in Manhattan.	Working in Brooklyn.
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
40 minutes or less.....	24.6	40.7
41 to 60 minutes.....	22.5	31.8
61 to 80 minutes.....	7.3	6.5
81 to 100 minutes.....	16.9	10.9
101 to 120 minutes.....	21.2	7.2
121 minutes and over.....	7.5	2.9

—and his conclusions are as follows:

First, that there are very strong economic currents tending to force factories and manufacturing establishments from the centre of the City and its periphery.

Second, that workers tend to live near their places of employment, and that the relocation of factories greatly readjusts the distribution of population. These facts lead irresistibly to the conclusion that the removal and relocation of manufacturing establishments in suburban districts will materially lessen the intensity of the congestion of population, and that the regulation of the location of factories would, in part at least, prevent further increase of density.

Distribution of factories does not necessarily mean the forcible removal of the factories of the City at one fell swoop. It may simply mean the arrangement of proper distribution and the inauguration of preventive measures for the future.

As the result of the study of these conditions your Committee make the following recommendations:

Recommendation of the Committee on Factories of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population, Mr. John Adikes, Chairman.

In the judgment of the Committee two lines of action must be adopted to secure a better distribution of factories throughout Greater New York.

1. Measures must be adopted to prevent the location of more factories in Manhattan or at least in sections of Manhattan.

2. Factories must be encouraged to locate in the other Boroughs of the City.

1. *Measures to Prevent the Location of More Factories in Manhattan or at Least in Congested Sections of Manhattan.*

First—The Committee feel that the only way to prevent the location of more factories in Manhattan is absolutely to prohibit their location in the Borough or in certain sections of the Borough, where as has been shown by the preceding statement their presence either constitutes a menace to the health of the workers in the factories or puts upon them and ultimately upon the consumers of the goods a heavy and unnecessary cost of carfare, truckage and breaking bulk. Factories in the centre of Manhattan involves a tremendous cost also to the City in the wear and tear upon the streets and in delaying traffic, and is from this point of view a direct injury to the City itself. The prohibition of factories in certain districts has ample precedents in foreign countries.

Many cities in Germany, Austria, France and Switzerland have laws which absolutely prohibit the locating of factories except in districts designated by the City authorities. The Town Planning Act passed in England this year (1910) secures the right to the Local Council to determine the use to which land shall be put and hence by interpretation to determine the districts in which factories may be located as provided in section 45 of the Town Planning Act. Toronto, Canada, also has preserved

certain residential districts from manufacturing through a by-law authorizing them to determine districts which may be so restricted.

The Board of Harbor and Land Commissioners of Massachusetts, created by Act of Legislature in 1879, has a right to determine the location of factories in certain districts or in cities where in their judgment the same is undesirable. The construction of factories and building of wharves or filling in and occupying of land in tide-water, etc., that would in any way interfere with the use of the waters of the city they have the right to prevent and to remove any encroachments or causes of any kind which may injure the Connecticut River or interfere with the navigation of any harbors of the cities or towns along the river. The authority of this Board has been materially extended by the revised Laws of 1902 and their jurisdiction and functions are along the same lines as the authority suggested to be conferred on the City of New York to prohibit the location of factories in certain districts because their location there will either impede traffic unnecessarily or cause the City an enormous and unjustifiable expense.

The City of Cleveland also through its Building Code, by requiring factories to be constructed of semi-fireproof material, has practically restricted the location of factories.

Second—In the judgment of the Committee these precedents are ample to justify the recommendations that legislation be sought to prohibit the location of factories in certain sections of Manhattan since the evil effects of locating more factories here has been amply demonstrated. They believe that this is no interference with property rights nor confiscation of such rights, but within the police power of the State. For fear, however, such a law might be declared unconstitutional, your Committee recommend that legislation be secured restricting the cubage and volume of buildings to be used for factory and loft purposes. The Mayor's first Building Code Revision Commission recommended that no building should be permitted to exceed a volume or cubage of 174 times the area of the site, which means substantially a height of 14 stories. As many factory or loft buildings 16 to 24 stories in height are now being constructed in Manhattan, this restriction upon the volume would materially reduce the rentable floor space provided in such buildings and the consequent congestion of operatives in factories as well as in the tenements adjacent, and the Committee would suggest that buildings to be occupied by factories or lofts be limited to a cubage of 132 times the area of the site, which would be equivalent to 12 stories, counting eleven feet to a story.

Third—The Committee recommend not only that no factory or loft building hereafter to be erected shall exceed a cubage or volume of 132 times the entire area of the lot upon which it is located, above the curb level of the lowest street upon which it stands, but that at the rear of every such building hereafter erected there shall be provided a yard open and unobstructed from the street level to the sky across the entire width of the lot and of a depth equal to one-tenth of the height of the building, but in no case less than one-tenth of the depth of the lot, or if the lot be under one hundred feet in depth of a depth less than ten feet, and that no premises or building hereafter erected shall be converted to, or occupied as a factory or loft, that does not conform to these requirements.

Fourth—The Committee recommend that 500 cubic feet of air space be provided for each employee in a factory instead of 250 cubic feet of air space as at present, and 600 cubic feet of air space instead of 400 as at present between the hours of 6 p. m. and 6 a. m., under the provisions of the present labor law.

Fifth—The Committee recommend that manufacturing in tenement houses be prohibited, or if that is not possible that at least such manufacturing be prohibited in tenements in which there are children, and that the manufacturer be made responsible for the conditions under which his goods are manufactured and for any violation of the above provisions, and, also, that he be required to tag his goods so that they may be identified at any time and that a State Commission be created to determine the best methods of prohibiting or rigorously restricting manufacturing in tenements.

Sixth—The Committee after careful study of the proposition made, for a Joint Railroad Terminal on the North River above 25th street, recommend that while a joint railroad terminal is doubtless valuable, that the construction of factories on any considerable scale here as proposed be unwise, as it would tend to produce the same congestion of population and congestion of traffic as has been produced by 12-story factories in other sections of the City. The present congestion of traffic on the west side is sufficiently serious without aggravating it by the construction of more factories as contemplated in this plan.

The provisions for elevated lines for assembling freight are, however, in the judgment of the Committee, very wise, although they would suggest that further exten-

sions of the lines that tap the central parts of Manhattan Island not now reached by any freight line should be provided.

2. *Measures to Encourage Factories to Locate in Other Boroughs of the City Than Manhattan.*

The Committee is thoroughly convinced that mere repressive measures will not be sufficient to secure the location of factories in the other Boroughs of the City than Manhattan. They therefore make the following recommendations to encourage the location of factories in the Boroughs of Brooklyn, Queens, The Bronx and Richmond:

First—The adequate improvement of the water front with piers and docks for factory purposes and with warehouses. The single pier constructed by the City in South Brooklyn at 37th street was constructed at an expense of approximately one and a quarter million dollars, and for the large site on which this is located the City paid in 1908 approximately \$4,666,000, although the land was assessed for only about two-fifths of this amount. The entire pier over 1,000 feet in length is leased to a single company for less than \$40,000 a year, which with depreciation and loss of taxes on the property means that the City is practically conducting a philanthropy. The background from this pier is a waste and the City is losing a large amount of money on the capital tied up as well as in the loss of the taxes upon the property. Evidently, however, the City should develop this water front similarly to the economic development of the Bush Terminal Company.

Your Committee agree with the conclusion reached by the Chicago Harbor Commission, after a study of European ports, that the City should not attempt to make over 3 per cent. net on its piers and docks, since the additional business brought to the City through the attraction of commerce justifies such an apparently small net return.

It is evident that some effort consistently followed must be adopted for developing the waterfronts of these other Boroughs to encourage the locating of factories in them. The Committee feel that important as will be the development of Jamaica Bay, that the important step to be taken in the distribution of factories is the completion of those developments which have been already started, such as this one in South Brooklyn, and the completion of the dredging and widening of the Newtown Creek, as well as the development of the waterfronts of Staten Island, The Bronx and Queens.

In a recent paper Mr. Hoag, of the Department of Docks and Ferries, suggests that the waterfront from Spuyten Duyvil south permits of development on apparently broad lines for coast-wise or local traffic. A great need, he states, exists at the present time for a pier in Harlem between Dyckman's Cut and the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad yard at Willis avenue. A new plan already established provides for a pier 40 feet wide between the Fordham Road pier and the University Heights Bridge pier, the City owning this property. Practically all the frontage, Mr. Hoag states, along this district is relatively easy of development for at least local traffic. The portion of The Bronx waterfront between Barretto Point and Hunts Point is well adapted for coast-wise traffic and would be for transatlantic traffic were it not for the enforced approach through Long Island Sound. Along this stretch of the waterfront the City owns property at the foot of Willis avenue.

Second—The Committee recommend that the freight lines connecting all the Boroughs be constructed as soon as possible.

Third—The Committee recommend that the ferriage charge for trucks on all Municipal ferries be equalized, to the present minimum.

Fourth—The Committee recommend that further provisions be made for carrying trucks on the Municipal Ferry boats now running from Manhattan to South Brooklyn and to Staten Island, both to Stapleton and St. George, by altering the boats so that they can carry four lines or rows of trucks, and all Municipal Ferry boats should hereafter be constructed in this way.

Fifth—The Committee believe that to shorten the work-day to eight or even nine hours universally would have a great effect in distributing population, since it is generally true that the longest hours of work of any member of the family determines the location of the family.

In conclusion, the Committee would call attention to the fact that factories are leaving New York City and New York State and locating in New Jersey very rapidly. They have not been able, owing to the lack of any appropriation, to collect statistics showing the extent of such factory removals, but have cited the case of two important factories, The J. L. Mott Iron Works, which removed their factory from The Bronx to Jersey City, taking with them most of the 500 to 600 men whom they employed there, and the Henry R. Worthington Company, also removed recently from

Brooklyn to Harrison, N. J. The latter's weekly payroll was about \$30,000, over \$1,500,000 a year, and most of their workers went with them.

In the judgment of your Committee the reasons assigned by the manufacturers are worthy of careful consideration by this Commission: They are high rents, high cost of land, high taxes and strictness of the City as to the smoke nuisance.

It is evident that high land values mean not only that higher rents must be paid for sites for factories, but also that higher wages must be paid to operatives so that they can afford to pay the increased rental which high land values necessitate if congestion of population is to be prevented. It is of the greatest importance that these four causes for the removal of factories from New York City should be removed as far as possible if factories are to be successfully retained in New York City and if manufacturing is to remain an important undertaking in the City. General information suffices to demonstrate that land cannot be made relatively cheap in the Borough of Manhattan, and that high taxes are inevitable with the large expenditures which the City has already undertaken and to which it is already committed, but that taxes can be adjusted so that the City can encourage the location and retention of factories in the City.

In this connection your Committee would call attention to the beneficent effect in retaining factories in the Boroughs outside of Manhattan of taxing land double the rates on buildings, that is, halving the taxes on buildings.

The tax rate in Brooklyn and Queens in 1910 per \$100 of assessed valuation was approximately \$1.81. That is, for a factory building worth \$50,000, located on a site worth \$25,000, the total taxes in 1910 in these two Boroughs would be \$1,357.50. If, on the other hand, the tax rate on land had this year been twice the tax rate on buildings the land rate would have been about \$2.19 plus and the tax rate on buildings \$1.095 per \$100. The taxes on the buildings assessed for \$50,000 would have been \$545, and the taxes on the land approximately \$647.57, a total of \$1,192.50, meaning a net saving on taxes in this specific case of about \$165, or approximately one-eighth of the total taxes. This is of course not a large amount, but a large proportion, and in most cases the assessed value of the land would be much less than one-half of the assessed valuation of the buildings, particularly in outlying districts, so that the total saving would often be one-fourth to one-fifth of the present taxes, if land were taxed at double the rate on buildings.

The Bush Terminals serve as a notable example of the economic development of the City through the normal distribution of factories. The chief features of the Bush Terminals are as follows:

The plant consists of a large area of land relatively cheap, situated on the waterfront in South Brooklyn, with well-lighted concrete buildings directly connected by its own lines with the railroads of the Borough and Queens and with wharfage facilities for transatlantic traffic as well as coast-wise traffic, also provisions for floats connecting with all the transcontinental railroads. The chief advantages offered by the location of these lofts contiguous to the water front or cheap land are:

First—The saving of rent.

Second—The saving of truckage.

Third—Saving of insurance.

Fourth—Saving of carfare and hence of wages.

These distinct advantages should be referred to. The last advantage is not so apparent, but the fact remains that although the nominal wage paid to the operatives in the factories occupying the Bush Terminals are the same as those paid operatives in Manhattan factories, yet the men who ride to their work pay \$30 a year for carfare, assuming 300 working days to the year at 10 cents per day carfare, and this is an item which should be carefully considered by the manufacturers in Greater New York.

It is evident that the manufacturer is pre-eminently benefited by increasing the rate of taxation on land and reducing the rate on buildings in three respects:

(a) The total amount of his taxes is materially reduced.

(b) Land for manufacturing purposes is cheaper.

(c) The heavier rate of taxation on land stimulates the construction of more buildings and hence through the operation of economic laws the rent his workers must pay is reduced which permits the payment of lower wages without any injustice to these workers.

(d) The distribution of factories also by eliminating or reducing the cost of carfare for his workers also enables the manufacturer to pay lower wages without reducing the standard of living of his workmen.

Comparison of the Number of Workers in Factories and Area in the Five Boroughs
of New York in 1906.

Manhattan, below 14th st., east of, and 20th st. west of 7th ave., total area 2,717 acres
Number of Workers, 321,488.

		Per Cent.
1. Group IX—Clothing, millinery, laundry, etc.....	155,558	48.3
2. Group VII—Printing and paper goods.....	51,909	16.2
3. Group II—Metals, machines and conveyances.....	37,253	11.7
4. Group X—Food, liquors and tobacco.....	24,196	7.5
5. Group IX—Leather and rubber goods.....	20,003	6.2
6. Group III—Wood manufacturers	10,583	3.3
7. Group VIII—Textiles	9,123	2.8
8. Group V—Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	7,723	2.4
9. Group I—Stone, clay and glass products.....	2,628	0.8
10. Group XI—Water, light and powder	1,022	0.3
11. Group VI—Paper and pulp	873	0.3
12. Group XII—Building industry	617	0.2

Manhattan, above 14th st., east of, and 20th st. west of 7th ave., total area 11,321 acres.
Number of Workers, 160,368.

		Per Cent.
1. Group IX—Clothing, millinery, laundry, etc.....	35,257	3.45
2. Group X—Food, liquors and tobacco	29,465	18.4
3. Group II—Metals, machines and conveyances	22,365	13.9
4. Group III—Wood manufacturers	15,476	9.7
5. Group VII—Printing and paper goods	13,414	8.3
6. Group IV—Leather and rubber goods	7,715	4.8
7. Group VIII—Textiles	7,598	4.7
8. Group I—Stone, clay and glass products.....	4,235	2.7
9. Group XI—Water, light and powder.....	2,426	1.5
10. Group V—Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	1,781	1.1
11. Group XII—Building industry	636	0.4

The Bronx, total area 26,017 acres.

Number of Workers, 18,143.

		Per Cent.
1. Group II—Metals, machines and conveyances.....	5,203	28.6
2. Group III—Wood manufacturers	4,775	26.2
3. Group VIII—Textiles	1,955	10.7
4. Group X—Food, liquors and tobacco.....	1,827	10.5
5. Group IX—Clothing, millinery, laundry, etc.....	771	9.7
6. Group I—Stone, clay and glass products.....	1,218	6.6
7. Group VII—Printing and paper goods.....	543	3.0
8. Group IV—Leather and rubber goods.....	301	1.7
9. Group XI—Water, light and power	284	1.6
10. Group V—Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	229	1.2
11. Group XII—Building industry	37	0.2

Brooklyn, total area 49,680 acres.

Number of Workers, 132,466.

		Per Cent.
1. Group II—Metals, machines and conveyances.....	35,942	27.1
2. Group IX—Clothing, millinery, laundry, etc.....	26,935	20.4
3. Group X—Food, liquors and tobacco.....	13,330	10.1
4. Group III—Wood manufacturers	11,881	9.0
5. Group VIII—Textiles	10,967	8.3
6. Group VII—Printing and paper goods	9,358	7.4
7. Group IV—Leather and rubber goods.....	9,201	6.9
8. Group V—Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	6,620	5.0
9. Group I—Stone, clay and glass products.....	5,447	4.1
10. Group XI—Water, light and power.....	1,828	1.0
11. Group VI—Paper and pulp	541	0.4
12. Group XII—Building industry	407	0.3

Queens, total area 82,883 acres.

Number of Workers, 22,324.

		Per Cent.
1. Group II—Metals, machines and conveyances.....	8,693	39.0
2. Group VII—Textiles	2,375	10.6
3. Group III—Wood manufacturers	2,340	10.5
4. Group V—Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	2,263	10.0
5. Group I—Stone, clay and glass products.....	2,151	9.7
6. Group X—Food, liquors and tobacco.....	1,744	7.8
7. Group IV—Leather and rubber goods.....	1,425	6.4
8. Group XI—Water, light and power.....	507	2.3
9. Group VII—Printing and paper goods.....	472	2.1
10. Group IX—Clothing, millinery, laundry, etc.....	284	1.3
11. Group VI—Paper and pulp	70	0.3

Richmond, total area 36,600 acres.

Number of Workers, 7,960.

		Per Cent.
1. Group II—Metals, machines and conveyances.....	2,800	36.5
2. Group I—Stone, clay and glass products.....	1,295	16.2
3. Group V—Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	1,032	13.0
4. Group VIII—Textiles	812	10.2
5. Group IX—Clothing, millinery, laundry, etc.....	749	9.4
6. Group X—Food, liquors and tobacco.....	444	5.6
7. Group VI—Paper and pulp	339	4.3
8. Group III—Wood manufacturers	175	2.2
9. Group VII—Printing and paper goods.....	127	1.5
10. Group XI—Water, light and power	78	1.0
11. Group XII—Building industry	5	0.1

Total area of New York, 209,218 acres.

Total Number of Workers, 662,749.

		Per Cent.
1. Group IX—Clothing, millinery, laundry, etc.....	240,554	36.3
2. Group II—Metals, machines and conveyances.....	112,355	17.0
3. Group VII—Printing and paper goods.....	75,823	11.4
4. Group X—Foods, liquors and tobacco.....	71,015	10.7
5. Group III—Wood manufacturers	45,230	6.8
6. Group IV—Leather and rubber goods	38,645	5.8
7. Group VIII—Textiles	32,830	5.0
8. Group V—Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.....	19,653	3.0
9. Group I—Stone, clay and glass products.....	16,974	2.6
10. Group XI—Water, Light and Power.....	6,145	0.9
11. Group VI—Paper and pulp.....	1,823	0.3
12. Group XII—Building industry	1,702	0.2

Comparison of Density of Population, Density of Workers in Factories and Density of Factories per Acre in the Five Boroughs of Greater New York in 1906.

	Man- hattan.	The Bronx.	Brook- lyn.	Queens.	Rich- mond.
Density of Population (from State Census of 1905)	150.4	10.4	27.3	2.4	1.9
Density of Workers (from State Dept. of Labor Report of 1906).....	34.33	0.70	2.25	0.24	0.21
Density of Factories (from State Dept. of Labor Report of 1906).....	1.383	0.025	0.094	0.005	0.00

The disproportion in the number of Workers in Factories and Factories in various parts of Manhattan is indicated by the following figures:

Workers.	Sixth Assembly District.	Below 14th St.	Above 14th St.	Man- hattan
In Factories	56,598	321,488	160,366	481,856
Factories	2,349	13,067	6,483	19,550
Area in Acres.....	186	2,717	11,321	14,038

Twelve per cent. of the Factories and 11.7 per cent. of the Workers in Manhattan are crowded into the Sixth Assembly District, 1.3 per cent. of the area of Manhattan.

The average assessed value of land per acre, secured from 100 lots scattered throughout the District, was \$660,850.20.

The Number of Buildings Used for Factories of an Indicated Number of Stories Below 14th St. is Indicated by the Following Table.

1 Story	178	3.7 per cent.
2 Stories	245	5.1 per cent.
3 Stories	649	13.4 per cent.
4 Stories	942	19.5 per cent.
5 Stories	1,490	30.9 per cent.
6 Stories	819	17.0 per cent.
7 Stories	216	5.4 per cent.
8 Stories	89	1.8 per cent.
9 Stories	32	0.7 per cent.
10 Stories	48	1.0 per cent.
11 Stories	23	0.5 per cent.
12 Stories	39	0.8 per cent.
13 Stories	4	0.1 per cent.
14 Stories	0.0 per cent.
15 Stories	2	0.0 per cent.
16 Stories	1	0.0 per cent.

Salient data has been secured regarding the block in the Sixth Assembly District having the greatest number of Workers in Factories per acre in 1906, 97.3 per cent. of the site being covered by buildings.

This block, bounded by Crosby, Prince, Broadway and East Houston streets, has the largest number of workers in factories and factories per acre in the Sixth Assembly District. The Sixth Assembly District has the greatest density of workers in factories and factories in Manhattan.

	Acres, Area.	Total Number.		Density per Acre.	
		Workers.	Factories.	Workers.	Factories.
Sixth Assembly District.....	186	56,598	2,349	304	13
This Block	3,312	4,007	77	1,210	23

In 1908 the assessed value of the buildings in this block was \$3,171,000.

In 1908 the assessed value of the land in this block was \$2,593,000.

In 1908 the total assessed value of this block was \$5,764,000.

In 1908 the assessed value of land per square foot in this block was \$17.97.

In 1908 the assessed value of land per acre in this block was \$782,910.62.

72.6 per cent. is covered by buildings 12 stories in height.

15.6 per cent. is covered by buildings 6 stories in height.

2.3 per cent. is covered by buildings 5 stories in height.

3.5 per cent. is covered by buildings 4 stories in height.

3.3 per cent. is covered by buildings 1 story in height, while only

2.7 per cent. of the total site of the block is open in courts.

Blocks With Large Number of Workers in Factories.

Between Chrystie st., W. 4th st., Thompson st. and Canal st. there were 10 blocks, each of which in 1906 had 2,400 workers in factories or over. There were 26 blocks which had between 600 and 2,400 workers in factories, while the block bounded by Varick, Vandam, McDougal and Spring sts. had over 600 workers in factories.

Distribution of Industries by Assembly Districts According to the Twelve Classes Into
Which the State Department of Labor Divides Factories.

Location Assembly District (1905)	I. Stone, Clay and Glass Products.		II. Metals, Ma- chines, Conveyances.		III. Wood Manufacturers.	
	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.
First	914	31	6,933	573	735	63
Second	493	32	7,239	442	1,908	143
Third	272	15	2,522	110	983	63
Fourth	42	2	1,250	55	267	17
Fifth	150	10	1,733	68	849	46
Sixth	604	30	5,837	340	2,556	155
Seventh	60	8	7,884	54	565	18
Eighth	10	1	96	15	38	10
Ninth	332	16	4,352	95	1,371	61
Tenth	5	3	140	23	82	26
Eleventh	249	6	812	29	580	21
Twelfth	47	3	2,412	22	754	26
Thirteenth	65	5	912	35	962	34
Fourteenth	22	3	362	28	568	21
Fifteenth	107	5	366	18	1,056	8
Sixteenth	9	1	845	58	1,278	55
Seventeenth	357	9	850	28	1,457	19
Eighteenth	185	16	2,165	72	1,495	62
Nineteenth	10	1	351	14	57	10
Twentieth	502	13	796	31	1,389	36
Twenty-first	27	3	7	3
Twenty-second ...	438	11	867	31	722	30
Twenty-third	54	1	870	17	465	6
Twenty-fourth ...	133	9	569	30	883	22
Twenty-fifth	425	28	3,216	51	2,351	128
Twenty-sixth	315	4	542	20	606	25
Twenty-seventh ..	168	4	1,579	33	697	26
Twenty-eighth ...	135	3	318	11	26	2
Twenty-ninth	15	2	350	16	92	8
Thirtieth	66	7	297	17	176	8
Thirty-first	2	1	225	7	21	4
Thirty-second	376	13	1,286	25	182	13
Thirty-third	103	6	635	10	63	6
Thirty-fourth	198	9	980	44	818	24
Totals	6,863	308	59,618	2,425	26,059	1,199

Distribution of Industries by Assembly Districts According to the Twelve Classes Into
Which the State Department of Labor Divides Factories.

Location Assembly District (1905)	IV. Leather and Rubber Goods.		V. Chemicals, Oils, Paints, etc.		VI. Paper and Pulp.	
	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.
First	3,787	173	2,762	122	26	2
Second	2,941	185	2,183	111	687	42
Third	2,815	112	377	15	18	2
Fourth	175	10	19	3	6	2
Fifth	5,120	394	303	9	16	1
Sixth	4,332	322	429	26	120	11
Seventh	273	10	442	8
Eighth	107	15	62	1
Ninth	608	12	206	13
Tenth	68	13
Eleventh	471	10	140	6
Twelfth	99	14
Thirteenth	119	7	132	7
Fourteenth	9	3	1,099	1
Fifteenth	5	1
Sixteenth	277	26	47	4
Seventeenth	265	6	257	6
Eighteenth	204	11	52	1
Nineteenth	5	1	2	1
Twentieth	97	9	48	1
Twenty-first	4	1	3	1
Twenty-second	78	11	175	3
Twenty-third	129	1
Twenty-fourth	126	11	3	1
Twenty-fifth	3,623	191	496	21
Twenty-sixth	172	5	11	2
Twenty-seventh	371	25	7	1
Twenty-eighth	47	3
Twenty-ninth
Thirtieth	522	12
Thirty-first	82	13	3	1
Thirty-second	848	10	60	4
Thirty-third	8	2	3	1
Thirty-fourth	60	7	54	6
Totals	27,718	1,625	9,504	376	873	60

Distribution of Industries by Assembly Districts According to the Twelve Classes Into Which the State Department of Labor Divides Factories.

Location Assembly District (1905)	VII. Printing and Paper Goods.		VIII. Textiles.		IX. Clothing, Mil- linery, Laundry, etc.	
	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.
First	12,178	408	1,786	70	20,235	706
Second	21,704	701	949	36	7,183	395
Third	4,558	73	2,534	101	33,081	913
Fourth	334	25	30	3	9,255	535
Fifth	4,623	129	958	42	35,036	985
Sixth	4,556	185	2,764	93	32,007	987
Seventh	2,860	29	69	4	585	70
Eighth	104	17	3	1	5,114	304
Ninth	1,716	20	429	8	964	61
Tenth	106	11	1,063	133
Eleventh	438	8	12	3	81	13
Twelfth	80	14	14	2	5,547	286
Thirteenth	1,225	14	66	2	328	23
Fourteenth	706	8	10	1	727	83
Fifteenth	12	2	32	2	316	32
Sixteenth	100	13	6	2	5,725	333
Seventeenth	88	5	1,886	11	458	30
Eighteenth	665	20	157	4	558	62
Nineteenth	16	4	336	2	579	55
Twentieth	1,749	24	22	3	732	59
Twenty-first	344	70
Twenty-second ...	157	8	646	72
Twenty-third	566	3	377	75
Twenty-fourth ...	55	4	12	2	730	72
Twenty-fifth	5,975	159	3,186	104	36,562	1,106
Twenty-sixth	92	9	36	2	474	50
Twenty-seventh ..	726	17	50	6	6,626	332
Twenty-eighth ...	19	2	132	43
Twenty-ninth	6	1	384	4	793	123
Thirtieth	27	5	79	4	591	48
Thirty-first	34	8	12	1	946	146
Thirty-second	43	4	32	1	1,769	112
Thirty-third	45	7	44	1	607	78
Thirty-fourth	326	15	257	6	644	58
Totals	65,323	1,949	16,721	524	210,815	8,450

Distribution of Industries by Assembly Districts According to the Twelve Classes Into Which the State Department of Labor Divides Factories.

Location Assembly District (1905)	X. Food, Liquors and Tobacco.		XI. Water, Light and Power.		XII. Building Industry.	
	No. of No. of		No. of No. of		No. of No. of	
	Workers.	Factories.	Workers.	Factories.	Workers.	Factories.
First	7,287	203	215	16	75	4
Second	4,071	189	411	23	257	25
Third	2,875	95	5	1	93	7
Fourth	810	89	30	1
Fifth	396	53	72	6	45	8
Sixth	3,214	149	110	35	69	16
Seventh	3,402	65	8	3	20	4
Eighth	323	61
Ninth	2,099	49	20	7	94	12
Tenth	340	62	5	2
Eleventh	782	36	20	1	20	1
Twelfth	485	59	34	2	3	1
Thirteenth	994	46	406	3	62	6
Fourteenth	330	70	167	4	17	3
Fifteenth	322	30
Sixteenth	663	84	3	2
Seventeenth	311	36	10	1
Eighteenth	1,515	48	578	6	25	4
Nineteenth	219	27	13	2
Twentieth	1,428	44	176	2
Twenty-first	536	48
Twenty-second ...	5,820	84	435	1	29	4
Twenty-third	298	66	16	3	24	4
Twenty-fourth ...	2,518	64	2	1	46	8
Twenty-fifth	763	54	269	56	73	16
Twenty-sixth	6,197	74	300	1	44	3
Twenty-seventh ..	107	17	24	4	132	9
Twenty-eighth ...	1,764	51	4	1
Twenty-ninth	72	11	7	1
Thirtieth	1,254	60	20	4
Thirty-first	311	69	8	1	8	2
Thirty-second	1,429	90
Thirty-third	258	70	158	2
Thirty-fourth	468	44	14	5	25	..
Totals	53,661	2,297	3,448	183	1,253	154

Distribution of Industries by Assembly Districts According to the Twelve Classes Into
Which the State Department of Labor Divides Factories.

Location Assembly District (1905)	Total.		Area. Acres.	Per Acre.		Workers per Factory.
	No. of Workers.	No. of Factories.		Workers.	Factories.	
First	56,933	2,371	520	109.5	4.55	24.0
Second	50,026	2,324	343	145.8	6.78	21.5
Third	50,133	1,507	230	218.0	6.53	33.2
Fourth	12,218	742	166	73.6	4.48	16.4
Fifth	49,301	1,751	277	177.8	6.31	28.1
Sixth	56,598	2,349	186	304.3	12.62	24.1
Seventh	16,168	273	297	54.2	0.92	59.0
Eighth	5,857	425	98	59.7	4.34	13.8
Ninth	12,191	354	264	46.2	1.34	34.5
Tenth	1,809	273	114	15.9	2.39	6.6
Eleventh	3,605	134	194	18.6	0.68	26.9
Twelfth	9,475	429	160	59.2	2.68	22.0
Thirteenth	5,271	182	188	28.0	0.97	28.9
Fourteenth	4,017	225	161	25.0	1.40	17.9
Fifteenth	2,216	98	124	17.9	0.79	22.6
Sixteenth	8,953	578	165	54.2	3.50	15.5
Seventeenth	5,939	151	226	26.2	0.67	39.4
Eighteenth	7,599	306	236	32.1	1.30	24.8
Nineteenth	1,588	117	600	2.8	0.20	13.6
Twentieth	6,939	222	186	37.4	1.19	31.3
Twenty-first	921	126	1,068	0.9	0.12	7.3
Twenty-second	9,367	255	218	43.0	1.17	36.7
Twenty-third	2,799	176	3,306	0.8	0.05	15.9
Twenty-fourth	5,077	224	348	14.6	0.64	22.6
Twenty-fifth	56,939	1,914	460	123.8	4.16	29.7
Twenty-sixth	8,789	195	224	39.1	0.87	45.0
Twenty-seventh	10,487	474	434	24.2	1.09	22.1
Twenty-eighth	2,445	116	166	14.7	0.70	21.0
Twenty-ninth	1,719	166	1,153	1.5	0.14	10.4
Thirtieth	3,032	165	220	13.8	0.75	18.4
Thirty-first	1,652	253	470	3.5	0.54	6.5
Thirty-second	6,025	272	573	10.5	0.47	22.1
Thirty-third	924	183	385	5.0	0.48	10.5
Thirty-fourth	844	221	278	13.8	0.79	17.3
Totals	481,856	19,551	14,038	34.3	1.39	24.6

List of Blocks Having Over 2,400 Workers in Factories.

1. Block bounded by Bleecker, W. 3d, W. Broadway, Wooster.....	2,671
2. Block bounded by W. Houston, Prince, W. Broadway, Wooster.....	3,648
3. Block bounded by Prince, Spring, W. Broadway, Wooster.....	2,726
4. Block bounded by Spring, Prince, Wooster, Greene.....	2,587
5. Block bounded by Prince, W. Houston, Wooster, Greene.....	2,948
6. Block bounded by Bleecker, W. 3d, Wooster, Greene.....	2,829
7. Block bounded by W. Houston, Prince, Greene, Mercer.....	2,895
8. Block bounded by Prince, Spring, Greene, Mercer.....	2,895
9. Block bounded by W. Houston, Prince, Mercer, Broadway.....	2,486
10. Block bounded by Prince, W. Houston, Broadway, Crosby.....	4,007

List of Blocks Having Over 600 Workers in Factories.

1. Block bounded by E. 4th, Great Jones, Broadway and Lafayette sts..	1,120
2. Block bounded by Bond, Bleecker, Broadway and Lafayette sts.....	2,002
3. Block bounded by Bleecker, W. Houston, Broadway and Crosby sts..	1,895
4. Block bounded by Prince, Spring, Broadway and Crosby sts.....	2,009
5. Block bounded by Prince, Spring, Crosby and Lafayette sts.....	1,710
6. Block bounded by Spring, Broome, Broadway and Crosby sts.....	1,352
7. Block bounded by Broome, Grand, Broadway and Crosby sts.....	1,146
8. Block bounded by Howard, Canal, Broadway and Centre sts.....	1,002
9. Block bounded by Great Jones, Bond, Lafayette and Bowery.....	1,852

10. Block bounded by Bond, Bleecker, Lafayette and Bowery.....	1,294
11. Block bounded by Hester, Canal, Centre and Mulberry sts.....	1,189
12. Block bounded by Hester, Canal, Mott and Elizabeth sts.....	1,073
13. Block bounded by E. Houston, Stanton, Bowery and Forsythe sts....	1,099
14. Block bounded by Stanton, Rivington, Bowery and Forsythe sts....	1,036
15. Block bounded by Bleecker, W. Houston, Crosby and Lafayette sts..	945
16. Block bounded by Spring, Broome, Crosby and Lafayette sts.....	944
17. Block bounded by Broome, Grand, Crosby and Lafayette sts.....	954
18. Block bounded by Grand, Howard, Crosby and Broadway.....	831
19. Block bounded by Grand, Howard, Crosby and Lafayette sts.....	804
20. Block bounded by Howard, Canal, Lafayette and Centre sts.....	708
21. Block bounded by Grand, Howard, Lafayette and Centre sts.....	892
22. Block bounded by Broome, Grand, Lafayette and Centre sts.....	828
23. Block bounded by Grand, Hester, Centre and Baxter sts.....	674
24. Block bounded by Grand, Hester, Baxter and Mulberry sts.....	808
25. Block bounded by Hester, Canal, Elizabeth and Bowery.....	763
26. Block bounded by Bayard, Division, Bowery and Chrystie sts.....	817
27. Block bounded by Hester, Canal, Bowery and Chrystie sts.....	620

Summary of Information Secured from Manufacturers in New York City Regarding
Reasons for Selecting Their Present Sites for Their Factory.

Name of Co.	Nearest freight Sta. Dis. away.	Cost per year for cartage to and from station.	What pro- portion of val. of goods you produce?	Value of out- put for 1909.	Cartage bill for 1909.
1. Theo. Eisman..	Bush Terminal R. R. connects with factory	Nothing
2. Greenpoint Met- allic Bed Co..	B'klyn East. Dist. Term. $\frac{3}{4}$ miles dis.	\$6,000 ap- proximately
3. M a n h a t t a n Brush Co.....	Bush Term. Cart- ing in and from factory	\$820
4 Lawson & Co.	Westchester and Brook ave. De- pot of N. Y. Central R. R. $\frac{1}{2}$ mile from fac- tory	M o s t pur- chases del. f. o. b. fac- tory ship- ping less than \$500 per year...
5. Eclipse Box & Lumber Co...	Each Dist. Termi- nal Dist. about 1 mile

Summary of Information Secured from Manufacturers in New York City Regarding Reasons for Selecting Their Present Sites for Their Factory.

No. of Employees in shop.	What does pay-roll aggregate?	Do most of shop-workers live near factory?	What proportion ride to and fro?	Are there any good houses within $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ mile?
No. 1—30	\$400 weekly	Yes	2-3	Yes
No. 2—500	6,200 weekly	50%	50%	Yes
No. 3—36	14,500 for year	75%
No. 4—50	Yes	50%	No—Rents are very high.
No. 5—100	About \$1,200 w'kly	Yes	5%	Yes

Summary of Information Secured from Manufacturers in New York City Regarding Reasons for Selecting Their Present Sites for Their Factory.

Hour of Beginning in Morning.	Hour for Stopping at Night.	Length of Stop at Noon.	Is It More Economical for the City to Construct Subways and Carry Passengers to and from Work, or Freight Lines to Distribute Factories Where Land Is Cheap?
1. 7.30	5.30	30 min.	Most working men like to live not too far from factory, providing they can get a home in good houses at reasonable rents.
2. 7.00	5.40	40 min.	
3. 7.00	5.00	30 min.	
4. 7.30	5.30	1 hour.	Yes; I think the idea is to have workmen reside where they can walk to their daily work, but that cannot prevail in crowded parts of any city and still enjoy actual living, so I think subways or other means of transportation should extend to the suburbs, making it possible for men to reside in decently appointed homes and near their work, and yet not be deprived of the blessings of the city during their earning or leisure.
5. To be on waterfront and on cheap land.			I think it would be best to distribute factories and give them the best possible methods of shipping their goods.

Summary of Information Secured from Manufacturers in New York City Regarding Reasons for Selecting Their Present Sites for Their Factory.

Reasons for locating factories in present sites.	Under what conditions would you remove your factory from Manhattan?
1. Reasonable rent, low insurance and every convenience.
2. We do a large local city business.
3. To have territory and up-to-date fireproof place for our help, as they spend most of their time in the factory.	Am only waiting transit facilities before building on property in Unionport bought for that purpose about six years ago.
4. Near my own home and convenient for workmen.
5. To be on waterfront and on cheap land, so we could have plenty of room.

Comparison of the Number of Workers in Factories in Cities of New York State and the Remainder of the State Secured from the Report of the State Department of Labor.

(The State Department of Labor reports the maximum of workers in factories reported during every year ended September 30, and the industries of the State are divided into thirteen classes.)

During the year ended September 30, 1909, the following proportion of the total number of workers reported in all classes were located in New York City:

	Per cent.
Stone, Clay and Glass Workers.....	39
Metal and Machinery Conveyances.....	37
Wood Manufacturing	51
Leather and Rubber Manufacturing.....	54
Chemicals, Oils and Paints, etc.....	51
Paper and Pulp Manufacturing.....	6½
Printing and Paper Goods.....	74
Textiles	71
Clothing, Millinery and Laundry Works.....	66
Food, Liquor and Tobacco.....	61
Water, Light and Power.....	71
Building Industry	70
Warehouse and Cold Storage.....	24

Fifty-six per cent. of the total number of workers of the State were located in New York City, and about two-fifths of the total number on the island of Manhattan.

The total percentage of each of these classes in New York State out of New York City, Buffalo, Rochester, Albany, Schenectady, Syracuse, Troy, Utica and Yonkers is as follows:

	Per cent.
Stone, Clay and Glass Workers.....	53.56
Metal and Machinery Conveyances.....	35.27
Wood Manufacturing	34.72
Leather and Rubber Manufacturing.....	28.32
Chemical, Oils and Paints, etc.....	24.92
Paper and Pulp Manufacturing.....	91.3
Printing and Paper Goods.....	3.5
Textiles	55.22
Clothing, Millinery and Laundry Works.....	22.2
Food, Liquor and Tobacco.....	26.4
Water, Light and Power.....	19.44
Building Industries	20.5
Warehouse and Cold Storage.....	76.

Only 27.34 per cent. of the total number of workers of the State were in towns outside of these cities enumerated and the proportion of each of these cities were as follows:

	Per cent.
New York	56
Buffalo	5
Rochester	4
Albany	0.9
Schenectady	1.25
Syracuse	1.8
Troy	1.81
Utica	0.8
Yonkers	1.9
Total	72.66

The rest of the State, 27.34 per cent.

Several States, such as Massachusetts and New Jersey, realize the evil results from the point of view of the health of laborers of such concentration of factories as well as the economic waste of such concentration and have successfully undertaken to widen the distribution of factories by an organized publicity by the State Department of Labor, indicating the opportunities for manufacturing in New Jersey in every city and every town with a population of over 100, through an industrial directory.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TAXATION OF THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION, PROF. GOODNOW, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee on Taxation of The New York City Commission on Congestion of Population respectfully report as follows:

The Committee have held three public meetings, viz.: On October 4, October 11 and October 25. Public notice was given of these meetings and invitations were extended to individuals, who, it was believed, could aid the committee in reaching a determination as to the influence exerted by the system of taxation upon the problem of congestion. A number of persons, including both those specially invited, and the general public, appeared and testified.

The Committee have reached certain conclusions based partly on their own observation and investigation and partly on the testimony they have heard which they desire to communicate to the Commission.

First—They are of the opinion that the influence of the system of taxation on the problem of congestion is not great enough to justify reliance upon it as even an important means of remedying the evil. The testimony of Prof. E. R. A. Seligman, of Columbia University, one of the greatest living authorities upon the subject of taxation, is to this effect.

Second—The Committee, however, are of the opinion that it is practically certain that an increase in the rate of taxation on land and a decrease of the rate on buildings would have the effect of encouraging building in the outlying sections of the City, as well as of forcing land into the market which is now held for speculation. The Committee is led to this conclusion both by their study of the effect of taxes based upon this principle which are levied in Germany, Canada, Australia, and in certain parts of the United States, and by the almost universal consensus of opinion of the witnesses who have appeared before it. This would seem to be the opinion of Prof. Seligman, Mr. William E. Harmon, a man of wide experience in real estate matters; Mr. Frederick C. Howe, formerly realty appraiser in the city of Cleveland, and a number of others who appeared before the Committee.

The Committee, therefore, recommend that the Commission direct its Committee on Legislation to prepare a bill providing that the rate of taxation on land be made double that on buildings. The constitutionality of such legislation would appear to be settled by the New York Court of Appeals in *People vs. Romer*, 185 N. Y. 285, which upheld the validity of an act of the Legislature taxing mortgages at a rate different from that imposed on other personal property.

The Secretary of the Commission has prepared tables to show the effect of such a change in the tax system on the amount of tax to be paid by owners of small houses built on cheap land, and by owners of unimproved land and to what an extent the burden of taxes would be shifted as between the several boroughs.

These tables develop the fact that the application of the principle that the rate on land should be double the rate on buildings will, on the assumption that the City raises the same amount of money out of the real property tax on ordinary real estate as was raised in 1909, causes an annual saving of \$12.73 to the owner of a house valued at \$2,000 and built on land assessed at \$600, and will increase the tax paid by the owner of vacant land assessed at \$2,000 by \$6.26.

So far as concerns the distribution of the burden of taxation among the different boroughs, it is shown that, whereas under the present uniform rate, the Borough of Manhattan pays \$71,526,892.42, or 67.53 per cent., of the tax levy of 1909 under the proposed plan it would pay \$74,071,271.52, or 69.92 per cent. Brooklyn, which pays at present \$21,543,038.30, or 20.33 per cent., would pay \$19,052,235.17, or 17.98 per cent. The Bronx, which pays at present \$6,884,680.47, or 6.49 per cent., would pay \$6,913,718.81, or 6.53 per cent. Queens, which pays now \$4,872,894.71, or 4.60 per cent., would pay \$4,891,470.55, or 4.62 per cent., and Richmond, which pays now \$1,105,222.96, or 1.05 per cent., would pay \$1,004,612.83, or .95 per cent.

In other words, the change would result in shifting some of the burden of taxation from the outlying districts like Brooklyn, where building has already taken place on a large scale either to the high-priced lands of Manhattan, which are more and more being used for commercial purposes, or upon the vacant lands of the Boroughs of The Bronx and Queens. That such a shifting of the burden of taxation would be desirable from the point of view of the purposes of the Commission on Congestion can hardly be questioned.

Third—The Committee feel that they cannot recommend the proposition made to it that improvements on land amounting to \$3,000 be exempted from taxation. Such an exemption would probably have to be made to the extent of the exemption in the case of all improvements, and would thus be applied in many cases where it is difficult

to believe that it would have any effect on congestion. It would further seriously, perhaps disastrously, affect the city's finances by reducing the taxable base.

Fourth—The desirability of a tax on the increment of land value similar to the tax which has been imposed by a number of German cities has been strongly urged upon the Committee. The Committee are unable, however, to come to the conclusion that there is any very close connection between such a tax and the problem of congestion. The testimony as to the effects of such a tax on land speculation and in keeping down the value of land and encouraging the buildings of cheap dwellings is conflicting. The Oberbürgermeister of Frankfort, Dr. Adickes, is of the opinion that such a tax has this effect. On the other hand, a commission of the Senate of Hamburg informs us that the land increment tax has had no influence on either land speculation or the building of cheap dwellings, and that it would be difficult to find proof that it has reduced land values.

The present increment tax was adopted in Hamburg in 1908. Prior to that time money made in land speculation was an income subjected to the income tax. The change was made in order to reach land owners not residents of the city. The communication from Hamburg calls attention to the fact that losses sustained in land speculation may be deducted from the income subject to the income tax.

Dr. Sudekum, the chairman of the Committee of the German Imperial Diet, having in charge a bill for an imperial tax on increments of land value, who appeared before the Committee, and who favored the imposition of such a tax, was also of the opinion that the increment tax had only the remotest connection with the problem of congestion. It was only, he thought, in so far as the city might with the proceeds of such a tax finance new undertakings for the improvement of the social welfare, that the increment tax had any bearing upon the problems before the Commission.

Professor Seligman made a suggestion along the same lines which it seems to the Committee it would be well to consider. He suggested that a tax on the increment of land value might be made to have an effect upon the problem of congestion if the proceeds of the tax were used for the promotion of those undertakings, such as transit undertakings, which both had an immediate effect on congestion and of themselves tended to improve land values. Such an application of the increment of tax would be but a development of the principle of assessment for local improvement with which we are all familiar. It is believed that such a method of distributing the burden of an improvement would in the long run be fairer than the attempt to assess the cost of a transit undertaking upon some local district in the city which such undertaking was supposed to benefit. Property in lower Manhattan has unquestionably been benefited by many undertakings for which it has never paid, like the bridges, subways and tunnels which have brought thousands of persons to it.

The Committee would, therefore, recommend that the Committee on Legislation be directed to draft a bill providing for an annual increment tax at a low rate, say 5 per cent., the proceeds of which shall be devoted to the building of the transit lines of which the city is in so great need.

It has been urged upon the Committee that The City of New York should receive a proportion of the inheritance taxes levied by the State. The Committee are disinclined to recommend any action looking to such an end, for they cannot see that there is any connection between such a tax and the problem of congestion, and they believe that the State is in as great need as the city of new sources of revenue.

Finally it has been proposed to the Committee that a progressive tax be imposed on the cubage of buildings as determined by the relation of the size of the buildings to the area of the lot on which such building is erected. Although your Committee recognize that such a tax might have the effect of limiting the height of the highest buildings, we are of the opinion that such a result would be attained through the exercise of the police power more effectively than through the power of taxation.

All of which is respectfully submitted

ADDITION TO THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON TAXATION OF THE NEW YORK CITY
COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION, SUBMITTED BY MR. JOHN J. FLYNN.

With the main suggestions of the report submitted by the Chairman of the Committee, Prof. Goodnow, we are in accord, provided slight modifications are made in these.

In the first paragraph the statement is made that "the influence of the system of taxation on the problem of congestion is not great enough to justify reliance upon it as even an important means of remedying the evil."

The argument and evidence submitted by the Chairman shows that an increase of taxation on land and a reduction of taxation on buildings inevitably tends to reduce rents, and hence to reduce congestion.

The two proposals he makes, however, to tax land twice as high as buildings—that is, to halve the tax rate on buildings, and to secure 5 per cent. of the increase in assessed land values does not materially increase the total revenues of the city.

The first proposal does not increase the city income at all, the second by only a small amount, between \$5,000,000 and \$6,000,000 a year.

The chief advantages of taxing land double the rate on improvements on buildings are:

First: That it is more difficult for the landlord to shift the tax on land onto the tenant, and hence this tax tends to make the proper person pay the tax—that is, the owner of land.

Second: It makes the wealth of land—that is, the costly land of Manhattan, pay a much larger part of the total tax levy on ordinary real estate.

While recognizing that taxation is not the only factor in producing congestion, it seems a much more important factor than the report of the Chairman would indicate, particularly if it is levied upon land chiefly, so that the tenants in a tenement or the owner of a small house on cheap land is not compelled to pay it in his rent. It will be generally agreed that a reduction of 50 cents from the present tax rate—that is, a tax rate of only \$1.30 per \$100.00 assessed valuation, would have a material effect in reducing the cost of housing and hence encourage the use of more buildings. The same result will be accomplished by putting a much heavier tax upon land than upon buildings and by meeting the total city expenditures as they are incurred.

It is most illogical that over one-third of the total tax levy this year (1910) is devoted to the debt service.

The interest on the city debt is.....	\$32,178,760 49
The redemption of the city debt is.....	7,104,320 39
Installments payable	7,160,614 84

Total debt service.....	\$46,443,695 72
The total tax levy for 1910 is.....	\$131,474,981 06

Divided as follows:

The tax levy on ordinary real estate.....	\$115,080,377 79
The tax levy on special franchises.....	8,249,097 11
The tax levy on real estate of corporations is.....	1,555,696 39
The tax levy on personal property tax is.....	6,589,809 77

Total tax levy	\$131,474,981 06
----------------------	------------------

The tax rate varies from \$1.75790 in New York County to \$1.87501 in Richmond County. It is evident therefore that nearly one-third of this tax rate is represented by and used for the debt service and that debt is due to the unwise methods of past administrations in attempting to put upon future generations the cost of the expenditures by which they themselves have benefited. The evil results of this system have been four-fold.

First.—To encourage extravagance because the nominal tax rate has been kept too low.

Second.—To make the total cost to the city nearly two and a half times the value of the improvement or expenditure when corporate stock is issued to run 50 years at 4 per cent. interest and sells at par, instead of paying for improvements as they are made and meeting current expenditures from current revenues.

Third.—To blind the public to the actual cost of government.

Fourth.—To put a heavy burden upon the poor of the city instead of making the holders of land who are reaping fortunes from the rising land values pay their fair share of the cost of government.

The Comptroller shows in a statement he has recently issued the result of this policy of farming out the poor of the city to the land owners. The payments of interest since consolidation on the city debt have amounted to.....\$229,058,449.99
Total provision for redemption and amortization of city debt to..... 80,056,321.26

Of this only \$18,143,717.85 was for the redemption of the city debt (corporate stock) while installments for sinking funds amounted to \$61,912,603.41.

The net increase of the Funded Debt since consolidation exclusive of General Fund Bonds, Special Revenue Bonds, and Revenue Bonds amounts to \$473,024,774.79, up to December 31, 1909, so that the net Funded Debt as above amounted on January 1, 1910, to \$794,930,288.88.

For 1911 the appropriations for Debt Service are:

Interest on the city debt.....	\$34,214,137 09
Redemption of the city debt.....	8,658,945 39
Installments payable	7,788,739 51

Total debt service.....	\$50,661,821 99
-------------------------	-----------------

It is evident that the city is running deeper and deeper into debt in the attempt to avoid making the land owners and the wealth of New York City pay their fair share of the city's expenditures as they are incurred and as a business corporation would do.

Thus while the nominal budget for 1909 was only \$156,545,148.14, the issue of funded debt (most of it for 50 years at 4 per cent.) was \$72,560,074.59, and the issue of special revenue bonds \$5,208,150.00, making the total budget \$234,319,372.73, or nearly \$76,000,000 more than the apparent budget—that is, half as large again as the apparent budget. During 1909, however, only \$8,190,000.20 was appropriated for payment of the city debt.

It is suggested that this Committee express their disapproval of such methods of finance which, as has been demonstrated, increase the tax rate by about one-third and that the Commission make the following recommendations to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment and the Board of Aldermen:

First.—That the amount to be expended by the city for the acquisition of school sites, the construction of school buildings, the acquisition of parks and playgrounds, expenditures for water supply and transit each year be included in the budget for the year instead of paid for by the issue of corporate stock. These expenditures are constantly recurring and bear a fairly well established relation to the increase of the city's population.

Second.—That the rate of taxation on the increase in assessed land value be progressive and not a flat 5 per cent as suggested by the Chairman of the Committee because it is not fair to tax a small and normal increase at as high a rate as a large increase within the same period. This tax should be levied moreover annually on the increased assessed land value, though the owners should be permitted to pay it in two or three installments if they so desire.

It is suggested that the tax on increase in assessed land values be as follows:

	Per cent.
On any increase under 21 per cent.....	3
On any increase between 21 and 40 per cent., inclusive.....	5
On the increase between 40 and 60 per cent., inclusive.....	8
On the increase between 60 and 80 per cent., inclusive.....	11
On the increase between 80 and 100 per cent., inclusive.....	15
On the increase over 100 per cent.....	20

Such a tax will be juster than a 5 per cent. flat tax and yield a much larger income.

Third.—That the tax rate for each year be increased to raise the sum the city needs to adopt the policy suggested in paragraph (1), since this can practically be done with the additional land increment tax without any constitutional amendment, since the \$2.00 limit on the tax rate does not include debt service and would hence release about \$50,000,000.00.

Fourth.—That the true price paid be required to be registered so that the taxing officials may have definite information upon which to base their assessment.

STATEMENTS SUBMITTED TO THE COMMITTEE ON TAXATION.

A. Statement by Professor E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia University.

In a general way, I should say, that so far as the question of congestion is concerned, the influence of taxation I think has been considerably overestimated. I mean by that the policies or practical changes that might be made in our American systems. It is a different thing if we were to treat it de novo. I think there are many more important factors than taxation, but so far as the tax problem itself is concerned I imagine that your query centres around the point whether improvements ought to be exempted or not or whether there ought to be a special tax levied upon the unearned increment. Many of the points you suggest, Mr. Chairman, have only a very indirect relation to congestion. They may be important from the point of view of securing more revenue, which then may be utilized in the wiser expenditure of the revenue for the benefit of the people. But the question of the inheritance tax for instance is in itself entirely apart from the question of congestion. I do not think the inheritance tax has anything to do, as such, with congestion, nor do I think that a graduated inheritance or habitation tax or occupancy tax, however good substitute for the personal property tax it may be, has anything to do with congestion. They are interesting questions which might be discussed from the point of view of the advisability of making changes in our revenue system, but I do not see that they are at all germane to the question of congestion.

Chairman: But suppose, as a result of the adoption of the grant to the city of

one-half the money, or tax, the real property might pay by so much, would that have any effect in reducing rents, etc.?

Mr. Seligman: As to what are the results of the present real estate tax it is in the main a tax on land space and tax on houses. Now in those quarters of the city where congestion is to be feared and, I presume, by congestion we mean congestion of living apartments and of tenement houses, in those quarters of the city where congestion is to be feared the land values are relatively less than they are in the business sections, as in the Wall Street section, etc. You have, of course, the slums where land values are in some cases slightly higher than the value of the buildings, but in the great mass of the sites occupied for dwelling purposes you will find the reverse to be the case. If that is so, why then of course a tax on real estate, the major portion of the value of which is on the house rather than on the value of the land, would be shifted to the tenant and will take the form of higher rent. The diminution of the tax would therefore mean a lessening of the rent. Here again, however, I think it must be borne in mind that the question of taxation is only of minor consequence in this whole question of congestion. Rents are comparatively high in New York because the land values are high, and land values are high not because taxes are high but because the land is valuable for business purposes. If there were no tax at all the superiority of New York real estate for the purpose of business would still be so marked that land values would be very much higher than they would be in smaller towns. Therefore I say that this whole question of the influence of the rate of the real estate tax upon congestion seems to me to be not so important, for instance, as the far more fundamental problem of transportation, or other points that might be mentioned.

Mr. Chairman: Would you feel that the division of the present tax on real estate in such a way that the rate on the building was twice as much as the land would have the effect of reducing the congestion in any way?

Prof. Seligman: Of course anything that would tend to decrease the capitalized value of the land would tend so far, at all events, to reduce congestion. If you could arrange the system of taxation in a way that is not possible under present constitutional methods, i. e., if you divide the city up into districts and put different rates upon different districts, then you could to that extent diminish the value of real estate of some districts and of course increase it in others.

Mr. Chairman: But it is claimed here that by an increase in the rate upon the land and decrease in the rate upon the building that there would be a premium given to people who own land to build inasmuch as they would not have to pay so much for the building as on the land, therefore there would be more buildings on the market.

Prof. Seligman: From the abstract point of view, I think there is something to be said for that point. But when we come to consider actually the results of the exemption of improvements as in the Australasian cities, we find a rather curious fact. The English Government published a blue book some years ago on the experience of every city of Australasia on that point. A law had been passed permitting localities to exempt, for certain purposes of local taxation, improvements from taxation. Now some of the cities availed themselves of that and some refused to avail themselves of that. Of the cities that availed themselves of it, the greater majority reported no change at all worth mentioning in the general conditions. Of course, it must be said that in any consideration of a problem like this we must remember that a great many things go on at the same time that are likely to affect the ultimate results. A change of taxation may go on concomitantly with a change in business prosperity. It may go on at the same time in the change of railway rates, etc. So you cannot regard an economic problem as you can a physical problem and say that precise results follow certain causes. It was found that in some cities some vacant spaces previously unoccupied were then built up and that this increased the general prosperity of the city and gave an impetus to the building operations, etc. In other towns, however, where one would think precisely the same results would ensue, as far as we can learn no difference was reported. It must be stated, however, in defense of the claim that exemption of improvements is desirable so far as I know no town or city which has gone over to the exemption of improvements has receded from that position.

Mr. Chairman: Was that method adopted in any city of considerable size?

Prof. Seligman: In a few cities in New Zealand and New South Wales, but not in the largest cities. Further, of course, it must be remembered that the importance of this movement is minimized by the fact that it is not true, as is often stated in this country, that this exemption is applied to all local taxation. It is applied only to certain "poor" rates and other changes which would be included in our local taxes, such as after the fire department, lighting, etc., are excluded. In New Zealand and

in almost all of the Australian states, they have a state tax on the pure land value. They supplement them by the other taxes. The exemption does not apply to the whole range of local taxes, but only to a part of the local taxes, and, secondly, the conclusions arrived at are various. You cannot say there is clear cut evidence as to beneficial results following. In fact, a distinguished English economist who perhaps might be accused of a little prejudice in the matter because he did not believe in it, has written an article seeking to prove that the results were distinctly unfavorable to the contentions. I think, however, there is not enough experience to warrant us to form any conclusion in the matter at all further than the one I started out with, that the whole question, the influence of exemption of taxes on improvements under existing conditions in America or Australia is as yet of minor importance as compared with the other far mightier factors in the problem.

I do believe that if you were to have such a system as the tax on the unearned increment, secure a large revenue from that and with that revenue institute certain proceedings which would make the suburbs far more attractive to the citizen, you would indirectly or perhaps directly accomplish great results. For instance, in some of the German towns they utilize for the cities large sums secured in the main from their insurance funds and the unearned increment tax, for the building of model tenement houses, for the improvement of the suburban section and for the development of transportation facilities. Those, it seems to me, are the important points to be considered. How can you make it possible for people now living in the slums to live in places where land values are much less and at the same time attend to their ordinary vocations in life?

Mr. Chairman: Was the raising or the expenditure of the money to have the effect you speak of?

Prof. Seligman: The expenditure would not have been made but for the increased revenues which were designed to afford the means for this increased expenditure. The tax on the unearned increment in the German cities has been too recent and too slight to warrant any general conclusion, but it is expected and on general principles it would be expected that a tax on unearned increment would to that extent diminish the selling value of the land. Now a yearly tax of say 10 per cent. or 20 per cent. or even more on unearned increment would of course prevent the appreciation to that extent of the value of the land and would therefore prevent any further congestion.

As regards speculation, the experiments have been in operation in German cities for over two years and in some instances five years. It is assumed by pretty nearly all the investigators of the problem that speculation will be diminished. As to whether it has been diminished, I think it has been too soon to say, but on general principles I should imagine that would be the result. Entirely apart, however, from speculation, the tendency of a tax on unearned increment will be to prevent as high a rise in land values as would otherwise take place.

Mr. Chairman: Is this tax in German cities levied occasionally or on the occasion of a sale?

Prof. Seligman: On the occasion of a sale, but the period differs. Sometimes a short time elapses and sometimes a long period. When, therefore, I said a little while ago that the influence of taxation is very slight compared to the other factors. I was referring, of course, to our present modes of taxation. I do believe that if by a system of increment taxes you can take for the municipality or government what would otherwise go into the pockets of the owner and thus be capitalized in the selling value of the land, of course the value of the land will be prevented from rising to that extent. It would diminish the increasing land values by a definite percentage and would pro tanto diminish the congestion.

Suppose I go down to Wall Street and buy a 5 per cent. bond which sells for par. Now suppose the city or the state imposes upon a certain kind of railway bonds a tax of 1 per cent. every year and you know it is a permanent tax and that it is going to be levied. Now if I buy that particular railroad bond, I of course would pay inside of \$100 for it, probably \$80 for it. The value of that bond will fall. Now, if a piece of land goes up in value and sells at an increased price, it sells at an increased price because people can get a certain income from it every year. It is simply a capitalized value of the land. If a tax is imposed every three, five or ten years, as long as it is a permanent tax and if the owner calculates his income from the land and ascertains that his income from that investment is going to be so much less than it would otherwise be, why naturally when he buys a piece of land predicting the annual normal gradual rise which he can or will get he will pay so much less for it.

Mr. Pleydell: This is then in the nature of our annual tax, but computed a

little different? This tax is simply an increase in assessment. Is that the economical effect, not taking a lump sum out of the purchase price?

Prof. Seligman: Yes, it would be a rent charge and unless you could estimate it approximately in the future, of course, it would not have that effect. It is very different from the British increment tax.

Mr. Marsh: You speak of these other forms of taxation not having any relation to the question of congestion, except indirectly. How about one-third of our taxation goes to pay debt service. Suppose we could raise ten, fifteen or twenty million additional a year, would it not have as direct an effect as an increment tax?

Prof. Seligman: It seems to me this ought to be kept separate. This question of the city budget is different. I happen to be connected with the Bureau of Municipal Research and for the present we are centering our efforts on the first method, which we think more important, viz., that all the movement in American cities ought to be directed temporarily to make expenditures effective, not to increase the taxes. But assuming you have reached the limit in your economy and then not being able to do all the things for social improvement desired by the city, it may be desirable to increase your revenues, the question is further complicated by the fact that in this city an increase in revenue or a change in the source of revenue is also to be recommended from the general point of view. Our system of taxation is not satisfactory, therefore I think without touching upon the question as to whether we have reached the limit of securing efficiency in economy in expenditures it is perfectly proper to consider whether we have not come to the point where more revenues or better kinds of revenue are not to be desired. I agree with you thoroughly that certain new forms of revenues are desirable in the American communities and especially in New York I do not think that I should put the municipal death duties, the inheritance tax, in that category because we cannot consider the local fiscal problem apart from the state problem and we have these at Albany as in New York and we need all the inheritance tax to be obtained. They would look much askance at giving up any part of the inheritance tax for local purposes. But on the other hand, the other point you raise, the matter of the habitation tax, there we reach a point where I think the experience of Canadian cities and other cities can stand us in good stead. The occupation tax, I think, would be a very desirable addition to our municipal revenue system if carefully worked out so as to avoid certain obvious dangers and difficulties and could be made not only to serve as a substitute for the remnants of the personal property tax as we now have it, but also to yield, as in Paris and other continental cities, additional revenue. I may add that on that point, in some of the European cities the function of the tax was to get rid of other objectionable taxes. That is a problem with reference to the best methods of raising a revenue. In connection with the tax on unearned increment one must be a little careful in putting a tax on unearned increment in addition to the annual tax on real estate or on land. If the tax on unearned increment will prevent to that extent any increase in the land values, you would to that extent also be diminishing the annual revenue which you would get from the real estate tax. Especially if you exempt improvements, the burden of the real estate tax would then fall upon land at a certain assessed valuation. Now if through this fact of putting more tax upon land as an annual tax the very fact of putting taxes on the unearned increment would decrease the value of the land, therefore cutting off your own income. That must be borne in mind as a disadvantage. If, however, you supplemented your real estate tax by a tax on occupancy or in parts of that kind, you could then perhaps more than compensate for this.

Mr. Marsh: Would not reducing the tax rate more than half the ordinary tax rate tend to reduce congestion?

Prof. Seligman: It would have that tendency. A tax upon anything produced tends to check the production of that thing. The remission of the taxes tends to encourage the production. The house is produced for what you can get out of it, and if you make it worth while for people to put money into houses, of course they will do so. I think a very important point to be considered is, whereas it might strike some people at first as not to be recommended and whereas it may strike other people as a matter of very slight importance one way or the other, it is significant that wherever exemption has been tried it has not been abandoned. Of course the Canadian system is different from ours in that many of the cities do not tax personal property at all.

I must confess, Mr. Chairman, that while I have tried the last few years to get definite results of the Canadian experience both from conversation and from correspondence, thus far I do not think it is in any tangible enough form to teach us much.

Mr. Pleydell: In Alberta they are applying for privileges as given in other cities, as in Toronto. They have gone in and applied for permission to do those things

and can revoke it by act of the Council, but does it not require change in the financial law?

Mr. Chairman: It has been suggested that a general exemption be tried here for \$3,000. What do you think of that?

Prof. Seligman: I should think pro tanto that it would work in the same direction, which would tend to encourage the building of little houses in the suburbs. But the matter is complicated by the fact that Mr. Pleydell has brought out, namely, that to the extent that you encourage building on vacant lands, other things being equal, you increase the value of that land.

B. Statement by Mr. Frederic C. Howe, formerly real estate appraiser of the City of Cleveland.

The Board of Realty Appraisers, of which I was a member, had decided to value all property at its true value in money and had made a scientific assessment of the real estate of the city on this basis. The Board found that land values in the city had increased \$177,000,000 in ten years' time, while population had increased by 175,000. In other words, every person added to the population had added something over \$1,000 to the value of the land.

The board decided to allow very generously for depreciation in assessing improvements. It therefore depreciated houses and buildings according to age, according to location and according to use. This was very generally approved by business men, who held that it was unwise to penalize the home, the factory or owner of an office building who improved the city when by so doing the land speculator was encouraged to hold land out of use.

I advocate the halving of the tax on improvements in harmony with the plan being adopted by so many cities of western Canada, where the tax on improvements had either been cut in two or abandoned altogether. In Vancouver the tax was first cut in two, and the results were so satisfactory and the stimulus to the growth of the city so great that the tax on improvements was abandoned altogether. This was followed by a doubling in the amount of buildings, a cutting up of large estates in the neighborhood of the city, a great improvement in wages and working conditions and a generally stimulating effect on the whole community. This change has also been adopted in a large number of other communities.

The cities of Australasia have been taxing only land values for local purposes for years and the reports of the officials are all to the same effect. No city that adopted the change ever went back to the old system.

I spent five months in Germany studying the land question and city planning and found practical unanimity among city officials as to the necessity of the city controlling the land. Nearly every one of the large cities have adopted the land increment tax, or tax on speculative profits. The rate runs from 1 to 33 per cent., depending on the profit realized and the time in which it has been made. Vacant land is taxed more heavily than improved land, and in some cities workingmen's dwellings are exempt from taxation altogether.

The suggestion that improvements be taxed at half the rate of land is a much more efficient method of reaching land values, and of stimulating the use of land for building purposes than the German system. It is easily adopted in this country where land is valued at its capital value; it does substantial justice to all and has the additional effect of forcing men to make use of land for some purpose or other in order to pay the tax imposed.

C. Statement by Hon. Edgar J. Levey, President of the Title Insurance Company of New York.

Mr. Levey discussed generally the effect of different methods of taxation upon congestion of population. He expressed the opinion that the effect of a super tax upon unearned increment was very difficult to forecast, on account of the conflicting tendencies which it would create. On the one hand, by rendering it more difficult for speculators to deal in vacant land and to hold unoccupied tracts out of the market, it would tend to have the effect generally claimed by single taxers, of cheapening ground values and thus enabling speculative builders to improve and turn out the finished article at a lower cost price. On the other hand, by rendering ownership of real estate—already suffering from many burdens—still more unpopular, it would tend to decrease the amount of capital willing to invest in real estate and thus make mortgage loans and especially building loans, more onerous. It was the exception, he said, where new buildings are constructed by the owners of vacant property. The business of constructing new buildings is principally in the hands of speculative builders who are active in a business quite as legitimate as any other business. They go into new enterprises because, after counting up all the cost, they find they can make a profit—if there is not a profit they will not build—and any legislation which

artificially makes it more difficult for them to pursue their business has a direct tendency to restrict development and increase rents.

Mr. Robinson asked: "Have you ever found that constructing a building higher than the surrounding buildings has increased the value of real estate in the neighborhood?"

Mr. Levey replied that it sometimes had that effect, because it was an indication that property in that neighborhood was available for uses more important than those to which such property had previously been put. On the other hand, it sometimes had the effect, temporarily at least, of depressing real estate values by affording a surplus of rentable space.

Mr. Robinson asked whether most of the Fourth Avenue loft buildings have been constructed ahead of the demand.

Mr. Levey replied that the Fourth Avenue movement was a striking instance of the effect to which he had just referred. It had increased land values in the neighborhood of Fourth Avenue, but it had decreased them in other sections; as, for example, Broadway, south of Fourteenth Street, and the district lying to the west thereof, as, for example, Wooster Street. This was due to the fact that the new Fourth Avenue buildings were drawing tenants away from the older buildings.

Mr. Cantor inquired: "Can you suggest any forms of taxation that would remedy the evil of congestion?"

Mr. Levey: Is it not going too far to assume that congestion is an evil? Is not congestion in itself rather a mark of progress and civilization? Districts that are least congested are most savage and undeveloped. Not to go outside of the possessions of the United States, Alaska is quite free from congestion, while New York City stands at the other extreme. The drift toward the cities is a mark of modern progress and is, perhaps, less to be deplored than some people think. Among great cities, it is generally true that the greater the congestion, the greater the city. It is undoubtedly true, of course, that congestion brings in its train certain evils which need to be controlled, as they have been in large part controlled by our tenement house laws, but there are few phases of civilization which have not attendant evils, and to destroy congestion would be almost equivalent to destroying our cities in all that now makes them great. To amplify my meaning, let us take, for example, the business districts of New York. The financial district is located within a very small area, where land values are very high. People do their work in office buildings twenty stories high and upwards, because they do this, business is conducted efficiently and economically. It would be less efficient and less economical if the financial district were dispersed over the city, so that people in order to meet one another, would have to traverse long distances. In like manner, each trade is apt to huddle together in one center in as concentrated a manner as possible, the dry goods trade in one district, the machinery trade in another, the leather trade in another, and so on. Business people do this because it is to their advantage to do so. When we come to the tenement districts we find that they are congested for a somewhat analogous reason. The people living in the crowded East Side districts live there because they have certain advantages which they would not get in the suburban districts, and in spite of the fact that they might get cheaper rents. They are happier where they are and in spite of all the efforts that have been made to induce the tenement dwellers of the East Side to migrate into new settlements these attempts have met with comparatively little success. Where so many inhabitants are found, there is of course a great deal of poverty and suffering also to be found, but I deny that the people of the East Side, generally speaking, are so badly off in their housing accommodations and so much to be pitied as many sentimentalists declare. The conditions on the East Side are not what the amateur charitably-disposed daughter of a millionaire on Fifth Avenue thinks they are, or what the casual reader of a muckraking magazine imagines they should be. The people in this district are, generally speaking, so well satisfied with their habitat that they resist expatriation. A great work was done in the improvement of tenement house building by our tenement house laws. Much still remains to be done so that conditions—especially as affecting the old law tenements—may be still further improved. But even while admitting the many advantages which country life has over city life, I think it may well be questioned whether the life led by the typical farmer in the country is more conducive to good hygiene than that lived by the tenement dweller. The tenement dweller—even the poorest—is at least secure from the inclemency of the weather. He can draw hot water from the tap, instead of having to tramp several hundred feet through the snow to get a bucket of ice cold water from the well. He has means of cleanliness which the farmer has not in the winter. He gets much more fresh air than the farmer, whose habit, not uncommonly, in the wintertime is to drive nails through the window sash.

Mr. Levey was asked whether the statistics did not prove that the death rate in New York City from tuberculosis exceeded the death rate of the rest of the State, and whether this discrepancy was due to overcrowding in the city.

Mr. Levey replied that he thought comparative statistics between New York City and the rural parts of the State should be carefully scrutinized, because in the one case we had adequate inspection, whereas in the other the collection of statistical data was notoriously imperfect.

Reference was made to certain testimony produced before the Committee, showing instances of lamentable morals on the part of tenement house dwellers.

Mr. Levey stated that the horrible state of facts alluded to constituted exceptional cases, rather than typical cases, and furthermore stated that in the mountainous and wholly uncongested districts of Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee and North Carolina, the very same crimes were so prevalent as to be typical, rather than exceptional.

Professor Goodnow asked what governmental action could be suggested which should have the effect of distributing the population.

Mr. Levey replied that while better transit facilities would undoubtedly play a large part in such a result, still more was to be hoped for in encouraging the location of manufacturing centers (which are subject to entirely different rules from those of commercial or mercantile enterprises) away from the Borough of Manhattan, because by doing so the working population would of its own accord follow the factories for reasons both of convenience and of economy, as for example, in the saving of transportation fares.

Mr. Robinson asked whether if a city were divided into two imaginary zones and public improvements constructed in one zone and none in the other, the effect would not be that the population would desert the unimproved zone and move into the improved zone, so that while real estate values enhanced in the one, they would diminish in the other.

Mr. Levey replied that this would be so, and, continuing, said that this illustrated the injustice of a tax, progressive or otherwise, on unearned increment. He asked Mr. Cantor to imagine the latter having purchased at the same time two pieces of property, each for \$100,000; one in Wooster Street and one on Fourth Avenue. The development of the Fourth Avenue loft district would make his property there worth \$140,000, while his Wooster Street property, for the same cause, would depreciate to \$60,000. The unearned increment tax would confiscate a part of his profit on the Fourth Avenue transaction, but would not refund to him any part of his loss on the Wooster Street purchase. Under these circumstances, would not Mr. Cantor feel that if the State were to be a partner in the successful speculation, it should likewise be a partner in the unsuccessful speculation? Mr. Cantor replied, "Yes, he would feel that way." Mr. Levey, continuing, said that this illustration was far from being as absurd as it might seem at first blush, because an unearned increment tax is in no proper sense a tax on regular income, but the confiscation of principal.

Professor Goodnow stated that it is extremely difficult to get at exact justice, but asked whether it would not be rough justice to secure by assessment part of the increase in assessed land value, due to all improvements shown by increases in assessed land values, without attempting to determine just how much has been derived from specific improvements and devoting the funds derived from this tax to permanent improvements, schools, parks, transit, etc.

Mr. Levey replied that where an assessment for benefit is made, it should be made for definite benefit to the particular property assessed, that he was a believer in the principle of assessing the whole or a part of the cost of rapid transit improvements on the outlying districts, which are clearly benefited by such an undertaking. But he doubted the wisdom of a haphazard collection of an unearned increment tax for the purpose of supplying funds for such improvements where such a tax was collected from districts not affected by such an improvement and which might owe their enhancement of values to entirely different causes. Mr. Levey stated that he did not favor habitation or occupancy tax, but would regard as less obnoxious a tax upon the tenants of business property, since that would reach people who live in New Jersey and pay light taxes there, while transacting business in New York City, where they enjoy practically all the benefits of its expensive government, paying no tax to the New York City government.

Professor Goodnow asked whether a tax upon business property would be a lien upon such property.

Mr. Levey replied that that was an administrative detail and might possibly be

necessary, though not clearly so, because people engaged in business were usually responsible and the tax could be collected from them.

Mr. Levey was asked with reference to a tax upon skyscrapers or buildings of a volume in excess of an adopted standard, and stated that the limitation of the height of buildings was, in his judgment, a proper exercise of the police power of the State and undoubtedly should be carried further than it is in our present laws.

Professor Goodnow, referring to the statement that an unearned increment tax differed from an income tax, in that it taxes principal instead of income, stated that the income tax of 1894 provided for a tax upon all incomes and that the profits from the sale of land and other property were regarded as income. In many foreign countries the income tax was as high as 5 per cent. of the total income.

D. Statement by Mr. A. C. Pleydell, Secretary of the New York Tax Reform Association.

There are strong arguments presented here and elsewhere designed to show that single tax as advocated by Henry George would result in avoiding congestion. We can pass that temporarily. That is, as has been said, a counsel of perfection from the practical view point. Apart from such change in taxation, that would be rather a moral and social change than a fiscal change, the only suggestions made to relieve congestion through taxation are by using the tax power for the purpose of regulation. Primarily, these are the suggestions being made.

I wish to go most strongly on record as being opposed to using the taxing power for purposes of regulation. It is so used now in a limited number of cases, mostly under the police power, the most shining example being the licensing of liquor. As far as it is used to-day under the police power, it may be classed among the necessary evils, and it is entirely a wrong use of the taxing power. The taxing power should be used for the purpose of raising public revenue only. When you try to use taxation for regulation, you complicate both the tax problem and the problem of regulation, and, what is still more important, is that this is only a confession of cowardice. It is only proposed when people are afraid to meet problems squarely. It is so much easier to meet evil sidewise under the plea that the government needs revenue and therefore put a heavy tax, in the hope that the evil may be put out of existence. As a matter of fact, this serves the purpose of making the evil more secure. I think some of the propositions to cure evils of congestion by taxation will have the opposite effect; and they have the defect of not meeting the problem squarely. From the counsel of perfection suggested here, namely, the single tax, it is thought you can destroy land speculation so congestion would automatically relieve itself. If it is to be relieved through any efforts on the part of the government then there would be no need of special treatment of the problem. Apart from such a radical measure as this, I do not believe changes in taxation will materially affect congestion. It could be done by increasing the transportation facilities, and absolutely limiting the size of buildings or the number of persons occupying space and through regulating the buildings and the occupants, heights, etc., in other words, all the details. Those are the present methods to relieve congestion rather than through any immediate change in taxation.

As to the tax methods proposed on the list before us, the third on the list—to help relieve congestion by securing half of the present inheritance tax for local purposes—that has no more to do with congestion than an airship, and it is no use from a practical standpoint in wasting any time in trying to do that. The first reason is that the state needs the money. The second reason is that if the State does not get the money from the inheritance tax it will get it from some other source, and it is almost as broad as it is long, as New York City pays into the treasury from the inheritance tax just about its share. The third reason and a more theoretical one, is that the locality has no right to take the money. It has no business to do so for one very practical reason—that you cannot say justly that if half the inheritance tax is to go back to the locality in which a man dies, this should be confined to New York City, and if you give it back to all the local tax districts, even half of it, you bring about a condition where there is at times a very excessive revenue. Suppose that half the inheritance tax went back to Orange County, where Mr. Harriman died. Those people would have nothing to do but elect themselves to office and spend the money. Absolutely they would have no right to it—they have done nothing to earn it. But apart from that, the only justification for the inheritance tax is that it is imposed for the privilege of inheriting property, and the privilege of inheriting property is one of the great powers of the state as a state or nation, as it would be in Europe, but in this country it is given by our State governments which govern the laws of inheritance or inheriting state property.

Now as to the fourth proposition, the tax upon skyscrapers, upon cubage, to have a tax upon such items comes under taxation by regulation. If you put such a tax upon all skyscrapers, or cubage, or tax buildings so as to prevent building to more than a certain height, you are destroying the profit from the upper stories of present buildings; but if you do not put a tax greater than the maximum profit, people would simply build even higher than they do to-day. I see no relation between the personal property tax and congestion as such, at least, that would apply to a repeal of the personal property tax in the City of New York. One of the gentlemen was speaking of the effect of personal property tax. I know of a manufacturer near here who complained to the local assessors for enforcing the personal property tax, and said that when his workmen found themselves on the list with \$200 or \$400 taxed personally they moved away, rather than pay this and the poll tax. The manufacturer wanted the assessor to forget the personal tax upon his workmen. This may be helping to increase congestion in New York City.

As to the exemption of buildings conforming to certain standards, that might have some advantage to commend it as a temporary step to the entire exemption of improvements if you want to go that far. I think it would be an exceedingly difficult thing to get it through. It would be giving quite a large advantage in many ways to the owners of these buildings, but it is doubtful as to how far tenants would profit from such a step.

The owner would be in a class entirely exempt from taxation and would charge a little less rent perhaps, but he would not give the profit back to the tenants, and I do not know how far it would relieve the congestion in the congested districts. But it is also meeting the problem a little by using taxation in connection with regulation, except that it is the other way round, encouraging the man by not taxing him.

It is a way of encouraging the builder to build new houses where there are now vacant lots and it would therefore tend to increase the demand for land on which to erect that type of building. The tendency is, if you have good transportation facilities, to increase the value of land in those neighborhoods adapted to the type of exempt buildings, all of which brings you back to the first question on the list as to a higher tax on land.

I was rather surprised to hear the advocates of single tax speak in the same breath of taxing the unearned increment by taxing a certain amount out of the value of land at the time of sale. All attempts to deal with the selling values of land in this way are dealing with what in one sense is a legal fiction. The only reason land has value at all is that you can get a certain rental out of it. If you keep people from collecting rents you destroy values. Now, how are you going to tax the unearned increment which disappears wherever you increase a tax on the rental value is a problem I have not yet been able to understand. It is interesting to see how that would work out. A man pays a certain amount of money for his land based upon the estimated net return, but if he is deprived of a certain amount of his net return by an increase in the annual tax, the land will have its selling value reduced. The intricacies would amuse one. And if you add a 50 per cent. tax on the unearned increment to the total tax upon the annual value of the land based on the selling value of the land, in a lump sum, it certainly would be grinding a man between millstones. Now, on the line of this first question, taxing the land at a higher rate, which is the same idea as a lower rate on improvements, as I said when I began, that is a step toward what has been styled a "counsel of perfection." It is a new idea in this country. The relief this would give to congestion is of course problematical. A good many believe it would materially relieve congestion. I think if you could adopt some plan, even in the City of New York, of placing a somewhat higher rate of tax upon the land, even if such a system was not adopted in the other parts of the state, it would somewhat help to relieve the congestion problem. I do not think it would have a very material effect until you carry it out more generally than in the City of New York, for the reason that in so far as you exempted improvements and made it cheaper to build, and thereupon get rents cheaper and thus increase the desirability of living here, you would bring more people here and that would have a tendency to increase congestion and therefore increase the value of land. This experiment is made in some Canadian cities, where they started the policy of exemption of improvements on land, which draws people and increases business. I do not think this tendency to attract people would be so great that there need by any fear, as it would automatically check itself; and in the long run, of course, such exemptions would be more and more beneficial, as more cities would take it up. I think there could be no doubt of that, and of course you have to begin somewhere.

The most practical method for helping the congestion problem for taxation is

through the policy of exempting improvements. It is largely the same idea whether you decrease the tax on improvements or increase the tax on land. There are some possible complications. Our special franchises are land; and tangible real estate, which is a building value. If the proposition to decrease the rate on improvements ever assumes the proportions where it would be likely to succeed, the special franchise question could then be taken up.

One reason why it seems it would be fair for the land in a growing community to bear the higher rate of tax is that the benefits of public expenditures go so largely to increase the value of improvements. We need not talk of who gets the benefits of these increased values, or the amounts; that is an abstract question at the moment. The practical question is that the city is collecting and spending every year an enormous amount of money. A good deal of this is spent on things that may not be easily seen to be reflected in the increased value of land, but a great part of it is reflected in the higher land value, as street paving and such things, which we all know and admit tend to increase materially the value of land. Public expenditures tend to increase the value of the land in the centres as well as in the outlying districts. Therefore you ought to adopt the policy of taking a larger share of the value of land. It is extremely hard to say just where the increase does come, but we know it *does come*. We know public improvements will increase the value of land some distance away from the improvement as well as near by, because such improvements enable the people to reach a business centre. The Brooklyn Bridge, for instance, is a shining example of that fact. It has increased values right around the Brooklyn Bridge, but the Park Row rents are not nearly as high as the Broadway rents or lots, and it has increased the value of the land in all downtown districts. The increased tax upon these values would help to pay for these public improvements, which, in turn, when they are made, will help to increase largely the value of the land.

That is all, except I would like to answer Mr. Marsh's question directly, to say that "The tax on the value of land cannot be shifted to the tenant. I fail to know one economist who holds that idea. No practical real estate man holds that the land owner to-day collects any less rent than he is able to get. Consequently if he is getting all the rent he can get from the tenant or is asking as much for his land as he can possibly get to-day, he cannot get more just because his tax goes up. The question of how high it is taxed will not affect the rental price."

E. Statement of Mr. Wm. E. Harmon.

Mr. Harmon stated that he had been active in real estate operations for twenty-five years, and that in his opinion probably the best way to solve the problem of congestion would be to double the tax on vacant land, thus reducing the tax on improvements. The question as to who pays the taxes is a very interesting economic question. The tax on buildings, it is conceded, is paid by the tenants, while the tax on land is ordinarily paid by the owners. The rate of growth of land values has in the past been considerably in excess of the increase in the tax charges of the city. To make the tax on land double that on buildings is directly opposed to the interests of the land owners, but there is an ethical question involved which should be honestly met. If you increase the tax on land you force construction to offset carrying charges.

Mr. Harmon stated that New York has not been the worst congestion problem, but that he thought that conditions were worse in Pittsburgh. Mr. Harmon stated that he thought that the conditions of congestion in Boston were due more to selection than necessity. In Boston, although it may have been unconscious, there has been a tendency to place a disproportionate tax on unoccupied land.

Prof. Goodnow: In general, how has this been brought about?

Mr. Harmon in reply cited the town of Wakefield, where he thought the tax department had adopted a more or less defined policy of forcing the occupancy of the land by increasing the valuation of unoccupied land. In Boston, this tendency has brought about a condition where often the assessed value is greater than the intrinsic value of the land. So long as the tax bears due proportion to the property nothing can be done. This has been partly due to the desire to force the occupancy of the land, and partly to the increasing cost of city government.

Land values around Boston are hardly as high as they were a few years ago; the actual selling price of land is often from 15 to 20 per cent. less than in 1890 as a result of the high taxes.

Prof. Goodnow: Is the rate high?

Mr. Harmon: Yes, \$18.00 to \$20.00 per thousand. As an example of the assessed value of the land being higher than the selling price, Mr. Harmon cited an instance of recent date when the company which he represents had sold a piece of land in Boston for \$10,000, the assessed value of which was \$13,000.

Prof. Goodnow asked whether the assessors taxed unoccupied land higher than improved land.

Mr. Harmon replied that they did, though perhaps unconsciously. He stated that the minimum housing rate in Boston is about \$1.85 per room for which he could get \$2.50 or \$2.75 in New York City.

Prof. Goodnow asked Mr. Harmon whether he considered that land values in Boston are kept down by values on the outside.

Mr. Harmon replied that he did, except as to central business properties.

Prof. Goodnow asked what the tendency is in Pittsburgh.

Mr. Harmon stated that in Pittsburgh there are three grades of valuation of land—city, urban and rural. Land unoccupied by buildings is assessed at the rural or two-third rate. The owners of land hold on to it very closely and the people are thereby forced into less space, because it is cheaper to hold land than to build and congestion of population results.

Prof. Goodnow asked whether the high rates around Boston tended to decrease land speculation.

Mr. Harmon replied that they did. He stated that in Boston it is cheaper to pay rent than to build houses; in Pittsburgh, the reverse is true.

Mr. Harmon stated that it must be remembered that when you make the land tax so high that you destroy increment you are apt to depreciate land and thereby put a higher tax on other property. Because of the high rate on land, some western towns have become bankrupt. Mr. Harmon said he rather fears that the tax rate on unoccupied land is too high in Boston. He expressed it as his opinion that in New York a step could be taken to increase the charge against the land without destroying the element of increment.

Prof. Goodnow asked whether Mr. Harmon had had any experience with the increment tax.

Mr. Harmon replied that he had not. He repeated that the ethical side must be met and the most effective plan would be to destroy the monopoly of land and force construction and this would be done by increasing the tax on land.

Prof. Goodnow asked whether it would have any effect on congestion of population.

Mr. Harmon replied that it would.

Prof. Goodnow suggested that along with this, transit facilities must be increased and improved.

Mr. Harmon replied yes, to a certain extent that would follow.

He instanced the case of some houses he had been looking at to-day in one of the outlying boroughs which rent at the rate of \$3.00 per room. They were about half a mile from the station. In his opinion, Hebrews and others now living on the East Side would take advantage of the better living conditions and lower rents in spite of the carfare and half mile walk.

Mr. Bleecker asked whether Mr. Harmon thought the people now living close to their work would go to these localities.

Mr. Harmon replied that he thought they would go more slowly, but that they would go. He stated that the tenement house has a very strong hold on the people, but that anything that will be done to increase the development of the outlying districts will pull away from the tenement houses. The poorest of these people, however, cannot go to these localities on account of long hours and low wages.

Mr. Harmon stated that if you increase the tax on land values it is practically the same as an increment tax.

The secretary replied that it does not give any additional revenue to the city.

Mr. Harmon stated that he is inclined to think that the assessed land values in Brooklyn has increased more rapidly than the intrinsic value within the past five years. That it will not be possible to raise land values except in some sections; that the land values in Brooklyn are probably stationary for the time being, although they are increasing in certain localities.

The Secretary: For how long?

Mr. Harmon: I wish I could tell.

Mr. Harmon told of the recent sale in Brooklyn at \$7,500 per lot for which he could not have secured more than \$3,500 per lot a few years ago.

The Secretary: What would be the effect of an increment tax on congestion of population?

Mr. Harmon: Purely theoretical. We cannot tell just what effect it would have.

HON. ALBERT SUDEKUM, MEMBER OF THE REICHSTAG, BEFORE
THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULA-
TION, OCTOBER, 1910.

MUNICIPAL TAXATION AND CONGESTION.

I thank you very much for the honor you have conferred upon me by asking me to address the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population and this distinguished audience. I shall not give you pretentious advice, but simply state what some of our great German cities are doing in the same field of activity. Practically every big city in every industrial country must face the question of congestion, especially in Germany and in those places in New England where the tenement house exists very generally.

During the whole period of the rapid growth of our German cities we left the whole work of town planning and housing to the activity of private individuals.

We have, of course, in every town a Board of Supervisors, who formerly did nothing more than the title of the board indicates; they did nothing on their own initiative in the field of town planning. The primary reasons for appointing such boards was to secure the community against the dangers of fire and careless house construction. If you look through the innumerable state and municipal laws concerning the housing problem as a whole, you soon will see that these reasons are still in effect to this very day. The law defines the material out of which the house may be constructed, the quantity of light and air which must be provided, the height of the house, the width of the street, the material of the roofs, the slope of the staircases and a multitude of other details too numerous to mention.

What they did not do and perhaps could not do was to cope with the problem of congestion, as it was manifested in over-population of given districts of every tenement house and of every room in such house. A speculative movement in real estate bought up and is still buying all the land around the cities and the steadily growing industrial centres, enhanced the value of lands, consequently the rents, and forced a great part of the population as a consequence of this to live under trying conditions.

The overcrowded tenements are the graves of civilization and manhood, of hope and ambition. About in the same proportion as the value of land increased, the expenditure of the community for the prevention of crime, sickness and misery increased.

All this is familiar to you and I have no intention of boring you by repeating trite commonplaces. Let us come to the point: The war against these evils and their causes. There is no patent medicine which we can take to relieve the congestion of population. The problem is a complex one and needs a combination of several remedies.

The often advocated measure of municipalization or nationalization of the land is not to be treated by this committee, because such measures after all could not be the work of one single town; I, therefore, will not discuss it.

What we have to do is in my opinion: First, we must extend the area to be used for housing purposes; second, we must provide for light and air, and for playgrounds and parks in the new quarters; third, we must provide adequate means of transportation for every citizen of the community; fourth, we must make our towns beautiful when we execute such reforms.

We soon realize that the whole problem resolves itself into the question, how can the land be cheapened. For if the land is inexpensive we can build inexpensive houses and spare playgrounds and secure a pretty environment.

You cannot cheapen the land in the heart of the business section of the city—we have no desire to do that—and it would probably be unwise to attempt to cheapen all lands used specially for business and not for housing purposes. But there are quantities of unimproved land, the price of which can be maintained on a reasonable level. That is a question of town planning. We ought not to wait until the private enterprise opens up the block around the suburban districts. The present procedure is for the private enterpriser to bring the town into the country, what we must do, is to bring the country into the town. The municipalities must be given the right not to lay out, but to build the roads and streets, as for example the city of Frankfurt is given the right. The municipality ought to be allowed to lay out its roads and highways without regard to the boundaries of private property. What we must overcome is the pure individualistic dogma, that property rights must not be interfered with. May I be permitted to use a simile? To-day I found in the "Outlook" of this week an article on vaccination and smallpox. An anti-vaccinationist points out in it the similarity. Who is so blind as not to see the truth in this reasoning. Now property rights are not more sacred than personal rights and private property must defer when the needs of the community demand it. The method of compensation is a secondary consideration and may be different in different places.

But the days of roads and highways are gone. Nobody can afford the time necessary to walk to one's business. There must be cheap and efficient means of transportation. In my opinion neither the surface cars, the subway or the L are the most efficient means of transportation; it is pre-eminently the railway connection with the largest number of lines, possibly the state or municipally controlled railway, that would be most desirable. As long as the local means of transportation are in the hands of private companies that aim only at profit, there is of course little hopes of achieving this end.

But I told you there are several ways of attacking the evil of congestion and if under existing conditions one cannot be used, the other can. Even a private company will follow in the direction of demand and if the demand migrates to the suburbs, the private company will pursue it. Hence it follows that we must accelerate the extension of our cities.

We can do this by forcing the property owners to improve their land. How can we do that. The answer is: By taxation. In my country, we generally tax unimproved land double the rate on improved land. The property owner may stand it for a time, but he will soon realize that his business requires the improvements. That is to say, he begins to build. And that is the desideratum, for we need more houses for dwelling purposes. Many housing reformers overlook the fact that it is of no social value to expel a horde of tenement inmates from one section and to herd them into another. A simple-minded policeman may be content to adopt such methods, he may believe that the war against congestion is compared to the crusade against the adulteration of food, but the far-seeing statesman ought to use more intelligent tactics. You have no right to destroy one tenement unless you are prepared to open the doors of at least two new and better houses.

Many German towns are beginning to construct houses on their own grounds and at their own expense. For instance, the town of Ulm constructed in eighteen years more than four hundred houses for working people in 1908 alone, forty-eight family houses costing 1,850,000 marks; the same town supports a number of co-operative housing societies; it owns more than two-thirds of the whole area; it is continually buying more land and does not sell a square foot of it. This example of Ulm has been followed by many other towns and is acknowledged to be the best preventative of congestion. But it may be a question if the method can be carried out on a larger scale in our greater cities—our capitals of industry.

Town planning as I described it above is a very expensive undertaking for a municipality. As a consequence the question of how to provide the money arises. There is plenty of money in the world, and all we have to do is to take it from those who can earn it without toil and sweat. This brings me to the taxation of unearned increment. While discussing this question, bear in mind that there is a definite relation between the increase of population and the increase of land values. In Berlin every newly born infant or every immigrant who settles there is estimated to raise the land value about 1,000 marks, and in Greater New York the proportion will probably be about the same. Part of the increase of value should go to the community which creates it. The taxation of unearned increment has a double effect. It checks the speculation on estates values and it affords more money to the municipality over and above the regular assessments. In my country the taxation of unearned increment is so very popular that our imperial government is now trying to have it operate throughout the empire. At least 1,200 large and small places have it already, and the reports show that the results are most satisfactory everywhere. Of course, in Germany it is still in its infancy and the schemes are almost all very tame. It is my opinion there is no reason to restrict this taxation to too small a margin. The higher the margin the better the effect. To sum up, I do not advocate a single remedy for congestion, be it a single tax or another one. I believe that the question is far too complex and baffling to deal with it without the use of different methods.

Where there is a will there is a way. It is a moral crime that our cities, as great and magnificent as they are, should postpone the solution of the crying problem until it has attained to such proportion as to inflict incalculable misery and suffering on future generations. The people will be the happiest and will surpass all others, which first overcome this great difficulty. I can see by the quality of your commission that the far-reaching importance of this question has come home to my American brethren, and for their sake and the common cause of humanity, I wish you every success.

Mr. A. C. Pleydell: The tax on unearned increment as I understand it is a revenue upon profits made out of selling land. Is this correct?

Dr. Sudekum: Yes, that is correct. The seller pays the tax on community earned increment and not the purchaser, so that the municipality gets part of the increase in the value of land instead of the man who sells it. The increases in the value of land from 1897 to 1907 were very marked in many German cities.

Mr. C. R. Lamb: Are there any laws in Germany which restrict the heights of buildings and so prevent congestion of population?

Dr. Sudekum: Yes, the State laws are very strict and the heights of buildings are two stories in small towns and villages, three stories in large cities, and five stories in Berlin, and in most of the large cities also, there is a series of districts or zones in which all buildings must not exceed a specified height or number of stories, and must not cover more than a designated proportion of the lot area, and these regulations apply only to each district, so that in the centre of cities where land values are high, the higher buildings are permitted; in the outlying districts, only low buildings with large yards are permitted. Taxation lowers the price of land in Germany.

Prof. Goodnow: Has anything been done to distribute factories?

Dr. Sudekum: Yes. In Berlin, no new factories are allowed in the centre of the city, and the location of factories is prohibited in other sections of the city.

Mr. C. R. Lamb: What is the limit of space between tenements and factories districts?

Dr. Sudekum: This varies in different cities. In Frankfort-on-the-Main, the two districts are continuous, while there are certain districts (Gemischte Viertel) in which both factories and tenements are permitted. Frankfort-on-the-Main was particularly fortunate in that the city owned a large amount of land along the river front, and improved it for factory sites, renting the sites on long leases. Cologne merely enacted laws prohibiting the location of new factories in designated districts, but did not evict any already started.

Mr. Otto David asked whether the tax on the unearned increment would tend to create and enforce better buildings and larger rooms.

Dr. Sudekum: It has that effect.

The Secretary: Do you think it more economical to prohibit factories in certain districts and for the City to construct belt lines or lines for carrying freight which would merely pay for the investment without netting any profit if necessary, than to construct expensive lines of transit for passengers?

Dr. Sudekum: Unquestionably the former method for the City to construct belt lines is the more economical and better for the workingman since it would save time and carfare.

Mr. A. C. Pleydell: Is the tax upon land heavy in Germany?

Dr. Sudekum: Yes; it is about as heavy on the average as in this country.

Mr. J. C. Pumpelly: In view of the difference in administration between American and German cities, do you think it wise for American cities to undertake the same policies and methods as have been adopted in Germany?

Dr. Sudekum: I am unable to answer. The policies which have been adopted in Germany have been successful there.

Table Comparing the Tax Levy on Land and on Buildings in Each Borough of New York to Raise the Tax Levy on Ordinary Real Estate of \$115,080,377.79 in 1910, if Land Were Taxed at the Same Rate as Improvements and Twice the Rate on Improvements.

Borough.	Levy on Land. Uniform Rate.	Levy on Land. Double Rate.	Levy on Im- provements. Uniform Rate.	Levy on Im- provements. Half Rate on Land.
Manhattan	\$51,019,522 19	\$63,727,911 17	\$26,165,836 66	\$16,293,833 22
The Bronx.....	4,666,706 04	5,829,981 49	3,111,137 36	1,937,947 38
Brooklyn	10,809,279 27	13,077,043 38	12,536,896 27	7,570,304 32
Queens	3,624,257 83	4,391,115 40	1,951,523 46	1,182,013 24
Richmond	633,465 91	741,928 35	561,752 80	328,236 04
Total	\$70,753,231 24	\$87,767,979 79	\$44,327,146 55	\$27,312,334 20

Table Comparing the Tax Levy on Land and on Buildings in Each Borough of New York to Raise the Tax Levy on Ordinary Real Estate of \$115,080,377.79 in 1910, if Land Were Taxed at the Same Rate as Improvements and Twice the Rate on Improvements.

Borough.	Total Levy. Uniform Rate.	Total Levy With Land Taxed Double Rate on Improvements.	Difference in Levy on Land Between Two Methods of Taxation.
Manhattan	\$77,185,350 85	\$80,021,744 39	+\$12,708,388 98
The Bronx.....	7,777,843 40	7,767,928 80	+1,163,275 45
Brooklyn	23,346,175 54	20,647,347 70	+2,267,764 11
Queens	5,575,781 29	5,573,128 64	+766,857 57
Richmond	1,195,218 71	1,070,164 39	+108,462 44
Total.....	*\$115,080,377 79	*\$115,080,313 99	+\$17,014,748 55

Table Comparing the Tax Levy on Land and on Buildings in Each Borough of New York to Raise the Tax Levy on Ordinary Real Estate of \$115,080,377.79 in 1910, if Land Were Taxed at the Same Rate as Improvements and Twice the Rate on Improvements.

Borough.	Difference in Levy on Improvements Between Two Methods.	Result in Levy if Land be Taxed Twice the Rate on Improve- ments.
Manhattan	—\$9,872,003 44	+\$2,836,385 54
The Bronx	—1,173,189 98	—91,914 53
Brooklyn	—4,966,591 95	—2,698,827 84
Queens	—769,510 22	—2,652 65
Richmond	—233,516 76	—125,054 32
Total	—\$17,014,812 35

Table showing the saving in taxes on several kinds of buildings in 1910 if land were taxed at double the rate on buildings to raise the total levy on ordinary real estate in 1910 exclusive of "real estate of corporations" and "special franchises."

The tax rate in each borough in 1910 was as follows, on \$100 assessed value:

Manhattan and The Bronx	\$1.75790
Brooklyn	1.81499
Queens	1.81779
Richmond	1.87501

The tax rate in the county varies because county expenses are a county charge. The tax rate on land if double that on buildings would have been in 1910, \$2,193+, and on buildings, \$1,096+.

+ Means increase in levy. — Means decrease in levy.

* The difference between these totals is due to one-hundredth of 1 per cent. in the varying tax levy of counties.

The tax rate for purposes of comparison is taken for each borough:

Type of Building.	Assessed Land Values.	Assessed Building Values.	Tax With 1910 Rates.
Manhattan and The Bronx—			
1. Large tenement	\$12,000 00	\$30,000 00	\$737 94
Brooklyn—			
2. Large tenement	10,000 00	28,000 00	689 32
The Bronx—			
3. Three family	2,000 00	6,500 00	149 34
Brooklyn—			
4. Three family	1,000 00	5,500 00	117 91
Queens—			
5. Three family	1,000 00	5,000 00	108 60
Brooklyn—			
6. Factory	20,000 00	40,000 00	1,088 40
Manhattan—			
7. Office building	1,000,000 00	750,000 00	30,747 50

Tax Rate.

Type of Building.	Tax In 1910 If Land Were Taxed Double Rate on Buildings.	Saving With Double Rate.	Per Cent.
Manhattan and The Bronx—			
1. Large tenement	\$591 96	\$145 98	19.7
Brooklyn—			
2. Large tenement	526 18	163 14	23.7
The Bronx—			
3. Three family	125 10	24 24	16.2
Brooklyn—			
4. Three family	82 21	35 70	30.
Queens—			
5. Three family	75 73	32 87	30.
Brooklyn—			
6. Factory	877 00	211 40	19.4
Manhattan—			
7. Office building	30,152 00	595 50	01.9

This table illustrates the fact that the nearer the land value approaches the value of the building the smaller will be the saving to the owner if land is taxed double the rate of taxation on buildings. The most marked savings through the proposed system is in the case of small tenements in boroughs outside of Manhattan where land is relatively cheap. In the case of large office buildings on land of great value this saving will be relatively small.

Table showing the comparative approximate amount that would have been paid by each borough of New York under a 5 per cent tax on net or clear increase of assessed value of land from 1909 to 1910.

Note—The amount assessed in each borough for street widenings upon property benefited could not be ascertained for the year 1909, but the total for the four years, 1905 to 1908, was as follows:

Manhattan	\$2,816,326 27
The Bronx	8,958,416 86
Brooklyn	4,537,214 51
Queens	614,455 07
Richmond	108,994 80

This amount, plus the amount expended by the owner of property for this purpose and for parks, playgrounds, streets, sidewalks, transit, etc., is deducted for every parcel before the increase is computed, and these expenditures are much larger proportionately in all boroughs outside of Manhattan, and would hence reduce the total amount to be collected from each borough. It is fair to assume, however, that one-fifth of the total gross increase in assessed land values each year in all boroughs,

except Manhattan, is expended for the purposes referred to, and one-tenth in Manhattan.

Borough.	Net increase in assessed land values, 1909 to 1910	Amount that would be secured from a tax of 5 per cent on net increase of land value	Per cent of Total
Manhattan	\$67,908,843 00	\$3,395,442 15	65.97
The Bronx	11,267,771 00	563,388 55	11.27
Brooklyn	9,303,607 00	465,180 35	9.31
Queens	11,424,617 00	571,230 85	11.43
Richmond	*46,818 00
Total	\$99,904,838 00	\$4,995,241 90	100.00

* The assessed land value of Richmond decreased.

Since the value of land in the 1911 assessment is full value any increase hereafter will be bona fide increase in actual value and not due to increasing the rate of assessment.

Form of a Progressive Tax Upon Increases in Land Values.

The German form of taxation is a moderate increase paid at time of transfer.

Copy of a Bill for Saxony of January 26, 1904.

Section 53. In all communes having a population of more than 10,000, an increment tax proportioned to the increase in value is to be paid by the transferrer in case of change in ownership of unimproved (umbebaut) land.

Under exceptional local conditions the levy of an increment tax may be required by the supervising authorities in communes of less than 10,000 inhabitants. This levy is to take place if the commune may be regarded as a suburb or if an unusual increase of population has taken place in it.

Section 57. The amount of the increment tax shall be:

If the increase of value is 5 to 20 per cent of the purchase value (erwerbswert), at least 5 per cent of the increase.

If the increase of value is 20 to 30 per cent of the purchase value, at least 10 per cent of the increase.

If the increase of value is 30 to 40 per cent of the purchase value, at least 15 per cent of the increase.

If the increase of value is 40 to 50 per cent of the purchase value, at least 20 per cent of the increase.

If the increase of value is over 50 per cent of the purchase value, at least 25 per cent of the increase.

If the increase in value is less than 5 per cent, there shall be no increment tax.

Section 58. The purchase value shall be that value which the land has for its actual utilization on the part of the seller, or if there is no actual utilization, such value as it would have under appropriate agricultural use.

Schemes for Berlin Progressive Taxation on Land and Improvements.

Section 7. In addition to the tax stated in section 1 (transfer tax, Umsatzsteuer) an increment tax shall be levied in case the present purchase price of market value of the land shall exceed by 10 per cent. the price of value at the last change in ownership, regard being had to the allowances stated in section 9. For the levy of this additional tax it is immaterial whether the last preceding change in ownership has taken place before or after this ordinance goes into effect.

Section 8. The amount of the increment tax shall be as follows:

5 per cent. of the increase in value, if this increase in value is more than 10 and up to 20 per cent.

6 per cent. of the increase in value, if this increase in value is more than 20 and up to 30 per cent.

7 per cent. of the increase in value, if this increase in value is more than 30 and up to 40 per cent.

8 per cent. of the increase in value, if this increase in value is more than 40 and up to 50 per cent.

9 per cent. of the increase in value, if this increase in value is more than 50 and up to 60 per cent.

And so on, 1 per cent. of the increase in value up to a maximum of 20 per cent.

For improved sites these rates shall be levied only if five years at most have passed between the last preceding and the current change of ownership. If more than five years and less than ten have elapsed, two-thirds of these rates shall be levied; if more than ten years have elapsed, one-third.

For unimproved sites the increment tax shall be two-thirds of these rates if more than ten years and less than twenty have elapsed since the last preceding change in ownership, and one-third if more than twenty years have elapsed. If the earlier purchase price or market value cannot be ascertained, then supplements to the present selling price shall take the place of the increment tax. These supplements shall for improved sites, be:

After 10 at 20 years, 1 per cent.
After 20 at 30 years, $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
After 30 at 40 years, 2 per cent.
Over 40 years, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

For unimproved sites:

After 10 at 20 years, 1 per cent.
After 20 at 30 years, 2 per cent.
After 30 at 40 years, 3 per cent.
Over 40 years, 4 per cent.

Section 9. In ascertaining the increase in value taxable under Section 8, the base shall be the former purchase price, but to this are to be added the following:

1. All expenses for permanent improvement of the land, including expenses for building streets and for connections with sewers. Expenses for remodelling or improvements are not to be taken into account, so far as covered by insurance payments.

2. In case of unimproved sites, which the transferer has not himself used for agricultural or manufacturing purposes, 4 per cent. interest of the preceding purchase price, less all receipts. Where land has been given without compensation for streets or public places, the whole purchase price remains attributable to the remaining land, and in case of division is to be attributed to the several parcels. No other additions are permissible. Any difference between the previous purchase price, supplemented by the allowances herein provided, and the present selling value, is to be regarded as an increase of value.

Taxation on Increase of Land Value.

The small increase of taxation on land values in Berlin and other German cities is particularly due to the fact that there are so many restrictions, even in the centre of the city, upon buildings, so that until within a comparatively few years there has been a relatively small amount of speculation and increase of land values in the inner part of the city. The proposition for an increment tax in Berlin was defeated particularly because of the preponderent influence of real estate owners in the city due to their property qualifications for the suffrage. As high as 500 fold profit has been made upon land in the suburbs of Berlin within the last twenty years. A similar condition prevails in Manhattan and in New York and justifies the rapid increase and progression of taxation on increase in land values. Several of the large real estate operators have within a few years after purchase sold their land unimproved for from three to forty times the amount they had paid for it.

The following exemptions are made in certain German cities before the increased taxation since the object upon which the increment tax is levied is the unearned increase of value of real estate during a specified period. Most of the following allowances commonly specified in the German systems might be permitted in assessing the increment taxes in American cities.

1. All expenses for permanent improvement of the property, especially for additions or rebuilding, provided these have not been met out of the insurance receipts, expenses for repairs and the like may not be deducted, since these serve not to increase the value of the property, but only to maintain it.

2. Expense for street building and for sewer connections.

3. Expenses resulting from the mere change in ownership, such as taxes, registry and legal fees, transfer taxes and the like. These deductions are, however, not allowed in all the tax ordinances. Where this allowance is provided for, it is usually by way of lump sum or general allowance—sometimes a general 5 per cent. allowance, sometimes 3 per cent. and sometime 3 per cent. for unimproved land and 5 per cent. for improved.

Proportion of the Total Tax on Land, Total Tax on Buildings and Grand Total and Per cent. of City Budget that would have been paid by ordinary real estate in each Borough in 1910, if land were taxed at twice the rate that buildings were taxed to raise the total levy on ordinary real estate:

Borough.	Tax on Land at \$2.19358.	Per Cent. of New York Tax on Land.	Per Cent. of Total of New York Tax Levy.	Per Cent. of City Budget.
Manhattan	\$63,727,911 17	72.63	48.46	39.06
The Bronx	5,829,981 49	6.64	4.45	3.57
Brooklyn	13,077,043 38	14.89	9.94	8.01
Queens	4,391,115 40	5.00	3.34	2.69
Richmond	741,928 35	.84	.56	.45
Total	\$87,767,979 79	100.00	66.73	53.78

Borough.	Tax on Bldgs. at \$1.09679.	Per Cent. of New York Tax on Bldgs.	Per Cent. of Total of New York Tax Levy.	Per Cent. of City Budget.
Manhattan	\$16,293,833 22	59.65	12.39	9.98
The Bronx	1,937,947 38	7.09	1.47	1.19
Brooklyn	7,570,304 32	27.71	5.76	4.65
Queens	1,182,013 24	4.33	0.89	0.73
Richmond	328,536 04	1.22	0.25	0.23
Total	\$27,312,334 20	100.00	20.76	16.77

Borough.	Total Tax.	Per Cent. of N. Y. Total Tax.	Per Cent. of City Budget.
Manhattan	\$80,021,744 39	60.85	49.04
The Bronx	7,767,928 87	5.90	4.75
Brooklyn	20,647,347 70	15.70	12.66
Queens	5,573,128 64	4.23	3.42
Richmond	1,070,164 39	0.81	0.68
Total	\$115,080,313 99	87.49	70.55

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HEALTH, ALDERMAN ALEXANDER DUJAT, CHAIRMAN.

In submitting these recommendations which call for the expenditure of large sums of money by the City, the Committee wish to call attention to a few facts brought out by their investigations and hearings, and based upon their own knowledge of conditions in the City.

It is not claimed that the death rate of New York City is extremely high compared with the death rate of some other cities. Dr. W. H. Guilfooy, Registrar of the Bureau of Records of the Department of Health, submits the following statement to the Committee:

"New York's death rate in 1909 was 16.00 per 1000.

Foreign Cities.

London.....	14.00 per 1000.
Berlin.....	15.10 per 1000.
Vienna.....	16.8 per 1000.
Paris.....	17.4 per 1000.
Munich.....	17.6 per 1000.
Rome.....	19.3 per 1000.
Venice.....	22.1 per 1000.
St. Petersburg.....	24.6 per 1000.
Moscow.....	29.6 per 1000.

American Cities.

Chicago.....	14.1 per 1000.
Philadelphia.....	15.8 per 1000.
Boston.....	17.7 per 1000.

Compared with other cities, the crude death rate of New York City is somewhat higher than some and lower than others. The Committee on Congestion should not fall into the error that the crude death rate of a city is an accurate measure of that city's salubrity, as compared with that of other cities whose crude death rate may be lower. The death rate of any town, city or country is dependent upon a considerable number of factors, and the most important of these are the sex and age groupings or distribution of population. A city with a very high *birth rate* like New York City will have a considerable number of children living in it under the ages of five years, at which age the death rate is very high, consequently this would increase the mortality considerably above other cities in which the birth rate is comparatively low. We find as a matter of fact that the birth rate in all the large cities of the world, with the probable exception of New York, has been decreasing within the past ten years, and that this decrease in the birth rate has gone hand and hand with a decrease in the crude or general death rate, due to the comparatively small number of children under the ages of five years, at which age the mortality is excessive.

When this department receives the figures showing the sex and age-groupings of the City of New York, as enumerated in the Federal Census of this year, it will be in a position to make accurate comparisons between the death rate of New York City and that of some of the other cities of the world. Until this is done, we maintain that New York City is equal to, if not superior, to any large city in the world from the point of view of healthfulness."

While admitting that the crude death rate of New York City is not higher than many other large cities of the country, it must be remembered that New York City is a combination of five boroughs with very different conditions, varying in density of population and extent of room overcrowding. The density of population per acre in each of the boroughs in 1905 and 1910 was as follows:

Borough.	Density per acre.	
	1905.	1910.
Manhattan	149.8	166.08
The Bronx	10.4	16.5
Brooklyn	27.27	32.8
Queens	2.3	3.4
Richmond	1.9	2.3

The density per acre for a borough or ward even is, however, misleading, as there are tens of thousands of the nearly eighty-three thousands of Queens practically without an inhabitant, and about half of Manhattan's population is crowded on to less than one-fifth of its area.

The indisputable fact remains, however, that New York's death rate is much higher than it need be and it is the opinion of your Committee that it can and should be materially decreased, since the loss of 25,000 to 30,000 lives a year from preventable deaths in the city is a serious fact which no civilized city can afford to neglect as New York has done in the past.

Thus had New York's death rate been low as in 1908, as was London's, there would have been over 12,000 fewer deaths, or about one-seventh less. While it is true that New York City has a high birth rate, as Dr. Guilfooy states, it is also true that it has a large annual increment of population of healthy and strong immigrants to offset this high birth rate. Unfortunately, the records of the Bureau of Immigration show the destination of immigrants only by states instead of by cities in states, so that it is not possible to determine exactly how many immigrants arrived in New York City during each year. It is fair to assume, however, that about the same proportion of immigrants remained in New York City for a time as went to the rest of the state. Out of a grand total of 256,425 immigrants who gave their destination as New York State in 1908, only 83,403 were women and children, and persons without occupation, or about one-third, and out of a total of 220,865 immigrants giving this state as their destination in 1909, only 75,829 were women and children and persons without occupation, again about one-third, while out of 280,880 in 1910, only 73,859 were women and children and persons without occupation—about one-fourth. Thus it will be noted that the population of the city is increased each

year by a large number of adult and healthy immigrants to offset the high birth rate to which Dr. Guilfooy refers.

Neither does it follow that because there is a high birth rate that there need be a high death rate among children under five years of age. Thus in Bourneville, a garden city only three miles from Birmingham, England, the death rate among children under five years of age was only 72.5 per 1,000 live births for four years, 1902-1905, while the birth rate was about 40 per 1,000.

In Port Sunlight, a similar garden city across the Mersey from Liverpool, where the conditions as to air, sunlight, space, etc., are unquestionably of the best possible for any working class, the birth rate has been 42.6 per 1,000, and the death rate for eight years only 9.6 to the thousand. The Registrar General of England in his report for 1907 says: "Speaking broadly, excessive waste of infant life is generally associated with a high birth rate, overcrowding, and the industrial employment of women." It is well known that both the industrial employment of women and "sweatshop labor" of women as well as tenement manufacture is an almost inevitable feature of congested life in New York City. As has, however, been demonstrated from the examples of Bourneville and Port Sunlight, a high birth rate does not mean necessarily a high death rate.

The Department of health recently included the following as preventable diseases—Typhoid Fever, Pneumonia, Broncho-pneumonia, Smallpox, Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis, Diphtheria and Croup, Measles, Scarlet Fever, Whooping Cough, Diarrhoeal diseases, Tuberculosis Pulmonalis.

The total number of deaths from Typhoid Fever, Pneumonia, Broncho-Pneumonia, Diphtheria, Smallpox, Measles, Scarlet Fever, Tuberculosis and Diarrhoeal diseases in New York City during the four years, 1905 to 1908, inclusive, was as follows:

Under 5.	5-12.	20-69.	Total.
55,870	8,093	51,379	115,342

The total deaths from these causes in 1909 was 28,700.

The deaths from Diarrhoeal diseases alone during this period were 5,380, chiefly, of course, among children five years of age or under. The Committee recognizes that not all of these deaths are attributable to room overcrowding, overdensity per acre, or even bad housing conditions. It is evident that poisoned milk fed to an infant will be as apt to kill it as living in a dark interior room. Its recommendations therefore cover this question of better inspection of milk and other municipal action in securing a wholesome supply of pure, cheap milk. The fact remains, however, that from the standpoint of the health and efficiency of the city's industrial population the loss of a thousand infants a year is not as serious as the loss of the same number of able-bodied men and women of working age—that is, of the immediately potential producers. New York City has relied upon the annual influx of scores of thousands of immigrants to take the places of the thousands of adult men and women who are annually murdered by permitting them to live in the unsanitary and hopelessly dark rooms of the overcrowded tenements and to work in unsanitary factories and at starvation wages.

The statistics furnished by the Health Departments and compiled in foreign cities prove conclusively that the greater the density of population per acre and the larger the number of occupants per room the higher the death rates and as well the sickness rates. Admittedly the death rates among Jews is lower than among Italians living at the same density of population. Corrections need to be made for age, sex and race, but no classification or refinement of statistics can hide the fact that the death rate of New York City is higher than it need be by several points and that two most important causes of this surplus rate is the overcrowding of rooms and the occupancy of dark rooms whose occupancy is sanctioned by the present Tenement House Law. This law permits nine persons, two adults and seven children under twelve, to occupy three small rooms with a cubic air space of only 2,340 cubic feet.

Dr. W. H. Parks stated to the Committee: "I can state from my own knowledge that the more overcrowding you have, the more sickness and deaths there will be. As to the actual amount of such increase I have no statistics and so cannot state definitely. It is the opinion of all those who have studied this question that we have increased sickness in overcrowded rooms, and increased mortality among those sick, not only more sick, but of those that are sick more deaths. This is especially true of communicable diseases. Overcrowded rooms mean less fresh air for individuals and therefore we now know less chance for recovery." Dr. Park stated,

"If possible, not more than two persons should sleep in the ordinary small city room," and recommended that persons have as nearly as possible 1,000 cubic feet of air space. Dr. Woods Hutchinson also stated, "Broadly speaking, the mortality rate in any city or in any ward varies directly with the density of population, the higher the density of population the higher the mortality." He advocated that the minimum cubic air space that should be required is 600 cubic feet for an adult and 400 cubic feet for children, while 1,000 cubic feet should for ideal conditions be required for adults and 600 cubic feet for children.

Dr. Abraham Jacobi stated: "There is no possibility of eradicating tuberculosis while people are crowded together as now in a few rooms. We can't stop diphtheria and measles and other contagious diseases as long as we have this congestion. Tuberculosis is called consumption, but there is a difference; where there is a single case of consumption the whole family is doomed unless they are removed. We have been preaching rest, good food and sunlight and sending to institutions.

"Advanced cases shouldn't be permitted to remain in their homes, as they will exterminate the whole family, but should be removed and cared for. Tuberculosis can be exterminated by taking care of incipient cases, but those in the last stages must be especially cared for. In one city institution there are 360 people where there should be only 150."

Similar evidence as to physical results of overcrowding is furnished by the statisticians and medical officers of several English cities as noted earlier in this report.

The Committee in making the following recommendations does so distinctly on the basis of securing the minimum healthy conditions of living essential to an efficient citizenship and does not understand it to be any part of their functions to discuss or even consider the cost of securing a reasonably healthy standard of living. To fail to recommend a reasonable standard of health would be to admit that New York with all its wealth still finds it cheaper to kill people than to ensure for them healthy homes.

The following are the facts regarding New York's health upon which the Committee bases their recommendations:

There are about 135,000 people constantly sick in New York City. There are 35,000 to 40,000 people constantly being cared for in the hospitals of the city, the great majority of them either in the city's hospitals or in hospitals which receive a per capita or per diem appropriation from the city for the patients they care for.

There are nearly 10,000 deaths a year from consumption and about 28,000 new cases of consumption every year, and those totals cannot be materially reduced so long as the occupancy of dark rooms and unsanitary factories is permitted, and the city fails to make adequate provision for the care or cure of tuberculous patients.

There are from 25,000 to 30,000 deaths from preventable diseases in the city annually. Of the 125,000 babies born in New York annually about 16,000, one in every eight, die. The death rates in congested blocks and overcrowded rooms in the city are much higher than those among the same races and ages living in less crowded conditions. The economic waste from certain preventable diseases in the city—that is, the loss of wages of men and women who die of these diseases—amounts in New York City to from \$37,000,000 to \$41,000,000 annually.

Congestion of population is contributing very largely to the \$10,000,000 a year which New York City spends annually on her departments for the prevention and the cure of diseases.

This waste of life can be materially lessened by aggressive action by the city itself, with the expenditure of enough money.

The Committee therefore makes the following specific recommendations:

Whereas the requirements of the present Tenement House Law are that there shall be not less than 400 cubic feet of air space for every adult and 200 cubic feet of air space for every child under twelve years of age, and this is evidently not a sufficient provision of air space to comply with the requirements of health. The Committee recommends that the requirement be increased to 600 cubic feet of air space for every adult and 400 cubic feet of air space for every child under twelve years. In view of the very great difficulty, however, of enforcing a regulation of this kind throughout the city, since the requirements of cubage and dimensions of rooms in tenement houses has varied in the different Tenement House Laws which have been enacted during the past 35 years, the Committee feels that the standard should be enforced only for the apartments instead of for each room. They recognize that this is not an ideal arrangement, but if in the judgment of the Commission it is feasible to require this cubage and provision of air space by rooms in tenements hereafter to be constructed and provisions for this cubage for apartments in buildings already standing and constructed prior to some date to be set in the future, the Committee would so recommend.

The law on overcrowding as it stands on the statute book at present is absolutely a dead letter and more effective means must be adopted to secure its enforcement than have heretofore been adopted.

First.—The Committee therefore recommends that the Tenement House Department be requested to have placards prepared stating the maximum number of occupants permitted by law to occupy every apartment, or, if it be deemed feasible, every room, and that legislation be enacted requiring the owner of the house or his responsible agent to keep a record of the number of occupants of each apartment which he rents, and also legislation requiring the occupant or lessee of apartments to file an application with the landlord for each lodger whom he takes. In view of the fact moreover that so large a proportion of the population of the city live in one and two-family houses and that in all probability this proportion will increase in the near future with the spread of Manhattan's congested population to the other boroughs of the City, the Committee recommend that the same requirements as to cubic air space in apartments of one and two-family houses should be enacted into law and that similar provisions should be made for the enforcement of this provision by the creation of a bureau charged with this duty in the Department of Health.

Second.—Ample evidence has been brought before the Committee on Health, that the perpetuation of consumption in the city is inevitable if people are permitted to occupy dark interior rooms and tenements into which no sunlight ever penetrates. The testimony on this point has been unequivocal.

Dr. W. H. Parks stated: "The best of my knowledge and belief is that three-quarters of those now known to have consumption will die without regard to what can be done for them, and it is only in the early stages that recovery is possible for a large percentage, so that there are some 20,000 in New York City that must die from the progress of the disease they now have." He stated further "that probably 90 per cent. of these are adults and that most fatal cases of tuberculosis occur either in the first year of life or after reaching adult size. The most important thing is to supply a place where good air and good light can be got away from the city. Next to that give them rooms with good air and good light in the city and sufficient suitable food if they cannot afford it themselves. Every case removed from the city and made comfortable itself will remove one centre of infection. At the present time the number of tuberculosis cases in the city remains the same. That is, we have as many cases each year as the year before. This means, however, a less percentage of the whole population, because the city is rapidly increasing its population." Dr. Parks stated that he anticipated the same number of deaths annually, approximately 10,000, under our present method of treatment. He also stated that if an immigrant contracted tuberculosis elsewhere he would be more likely to succumb to it because the room was dark and would be more likely to affect others in it. He stated also that any one that has had consumption should always live in the best possible conditions as to light and air space. It is even dangerous, he claimed, for a tuberculous person who has recovered after leaving the city to return to it and go back into the office work or ordinary city occupations.

Dr. Woods Hutchinson stated that in his judgment it is not possible to exterminate tuberculosis if occupancy either for living or working purposes of the ordinary interior rooms, lighted only by a window from an outside dark room, which room itself is lighted from a narrow air shaft 3 feet or 4 feet wide is permitted. He suggested: "There should be such changes in the Tenement House Law or in the interpretation of it as to prohibit the use of those dark rooms, those that are technically to be regarded as light, those that open into another room. No room in which it is not possible to read in the centre of the floor during all hours of daylight is fit for human occupancy." He remarked further: "I should say that as contrasted with other cities, the housing conditions here played a very considerable part in the prevalence of tuberculosis, because wages are higher here, food is better, hours for labor are shorter and the climate is better than in the majority of great European cities, and we have a large amount of sunlight as compared with other cities."

The Committee therefore recommends that a permanent Board of Condemnation for the condemnation or ordering vacation of unsanitary buildings, dwellings, apartments, rooms and tenements, be created, which shall devote its entire time to the inspection of the scores of dark rooms in tenements, factories and dwellings in this city which are continuing the number of deaths from consumption. It is evident that the mere cutting of a window 4 by 7 feet from one dark room into another is absolutely inadequate to make the room fit for human habitation or even occupancy, and that many of these rooms must be permanently closed or at least permanently vacated. Many of the buildings are in themselves so serious a menace that they should be closed. The Committee is aware that some immigrants are careless in reference to this matter and absolutely indifferent, but the interests of the city re-

quire that they should be protected against themselves if necessary, since they come here robust, having to pass a very careful physical examination. As Dr. Hutchinson has stated: "We breed two-thirds of our consumption right here in this city, as the class of people that come here from the other side of the Atlantic are as a whole a healthy and superior class." In self protection, therefore, the city which must pay the cost of caring for the families of wage earners who succumb to consumption has the right to protect itself and require its citizens to accept the city's protection against these conditions.

Third.—It is evident that the present facilities and expenditures of the city for caring for victims of consumption are inadequate, since there are long waiting lists in the various institutions treating tuberculous patients. The poverty of the citizens moreover prevents their securing proper food and refraining from work until they are physically able to go back to their ordinary employment. The Committee therefore recommends that the city make adequate provision to care for the victims of consumption away from their homes. They feel the city should also provide outside of congested districts for the indigent families of these patients, especially when they are deprived of the earnings of the wage earner of the family. The Committee feel strongly that this is not a charity in any sense of the word, but only the debt which the city owes to these families.

Fourth.—The Committee have had considerable evidence presented to them of the danger from a health point of view of manufacturing in tenements. At present a license is given for manufacturing in an entire tenement and not for a single apartment, and the result has been that tenement manufacture is carried on in apartments or tenements in which there are patients sick with scarlet fever, consumption, diphtheria and measles. It is hardly necessary to state that this is a serious menace, not only to the city itself, but to the other communities to which the goods manufactured in these tenements are shipped. They therefore recommend that manufacturing in tenement houses be prohibited if it be constitutional, and in any event that it be much more carefully regulated than at present and that manufacturers be held responsible for the place to which their work is sent and in no case should work be sent to any tenement in which there are children, for two reasons, presented in the evidence given before the Committee.

First.—Families in which there is no contagious disease often give part of the clothing they have received to families one of whose members is sick in the apartment with a contagious disease.

Second.—The cruelty to children of permitting them to work at home. It is not uncommon for young children, as young as four years of age, to work several hours pulling out bastings and doing other unskilled but confining work, which is most injurious when carried on for a number of hours. Manufacture of flowers is very common, too, and your Committee have seen young children working at night in this employment.

Fifth.—The Committee recommends that provision should be made not only for the physical and medical examination of all school children, but as well for the treatment of all school children, in public and religious schools, if their parents are unable to afford this themselves. It will be noted, however, from the report of the Division of Child Hygiene, Department of Health, that for the school year from September, 1908, to June, 1909, that 242,048 children out of 323,344 examined were found to need treatment, 183,862 on account of defective teeth, 38,329 on account of defective vision, 73,058 on account of defective nasal breathing, and 86,688 on account of hypertrophied tonsils. Of the total number, 203,438 received treatment, or 84.06 per cent. of the 432,138 children found during the year 1909 to 1910 to have non-contagious physical defects 77 per cent. were reported as treated. The Bureau of Municipal Research in commenting upon the work of the Division of Child Hygiene stated: "Of every 100 school children examined by medical inspectors of this division, approximately 75 per cent. were recommended to secure medical treatment. Of the 75 in every 100 found defective, about 77 per cent., or 53 children, are reported by this division as treated. Of the 77 per cent., it is fair to question from the records of the department whether more than 25 per cent., or 13 children, have received treatment which is recognized by the department itself as effective.

"From records of the department it may in fairness be questioned whether more than 25 per cent. of the children reported as treated received treatment that by the standards of the department can be considered effective.

"In view of the great efforts of the department to urge treatments, it is therefore very probable that a greater number of effective treatments cannot be secured because of limitations of clinics and the economic inability of parents to pay doctors' fees.

"The question presented is whether the department shall make a constantly in-

creasing number of physical examinations in which a very small percentage of those examined receive effective treatment, or whether it is better for the city to make fewer examinations and secure effective treatment in a large percentage of cases examined."

The Committee feel that it is wrong to take the ground that because the parents of children are too poor to give them the treatment which a medical examination shows that they need, that therefore the city should refrain from having them examined. The revelations as to the physical conditions of children are most alarming and therefore the Committee recommend most emphatically that adequate appropriation be made to the Department of Health as above suggested so that every child in the School may have a careful medical examination as frequently as the Department of Health, which has in charge this work, deems necessary, and that adequate appropriation should be made for the treatment of children whose parents are unable to give them the proper care and treatment. Whenever the parents are able to give them such care they should, of course, be required to do so and should be punished for cruelty and neglect of children in case they fail to make such provisions for their need as is within their financial ability. On the other hand, if the city fails to provide the needed treatment for the children whose parents are unable to secure this for them, then it is guilty of as gross cruelty and neglect of the children as the parents themselves.

The Committee feel that in emphasizing the responsibility of the city for careful and adequate treatment of the children they are merely emphasizing the fundamental duty of the city to protect itself, since the waste of the children of the city is most alarming.

Sixth.—Impure milk causes many thousands of preventable deaths among infants, and much expensive sickness, which is a heavy cost upon the poorly paid wage earners of the city. The Committee recommend that adequate appropriation be made for the inspection of milk and for securing a supply of cheap and good milk for the city. This certified milk would cost only 15 cents per quart, which would mean a cost of approximately \$1.00 per week for each child. Your Committee also recommend that the city itself establish stations for pasteurizing milk which could be made safe and sold at 9 cents per quart.

Ninth.—The Committee recommends that more playgrounds should be provided to counteract the physical results of room overcrowding and congestion of population. As suggested by Mr. Frederick L. Hoffman, the noted statistician, these playgrounds should be provided chiefly in the form of grass plots and serve as playgrounds for the children.

Tenth.—The Committee recommend that the city restrict the development of outlying sections of the boroughs where land is now very cheap so that there will not be a density of over 100 to the acre and that the development be restricted to one and two-family houses. Mr. Hoffman made the following statement before the Committee: "I am willing to go so far as to say that it is not only necessary, but the duty of every large American city like New York absolutely to central factory and building operations within a radius of say fifteen miles of its centre as a reasonable transportation distance, and the city failing to discharge this duty is guilty of a grave negligence toward the most desirable class of its citizens."

The housing problem is primarily a health problem and the mere fact that insanitary conditions and overcrowded tenements and rooms have been excused in Manhattan and in parts of the Bronx, Brooklyn, and even Queens because of high land values is no reason whatsoever why these conditions should be permitted to exist or to be duplicated in other boroughs.

The precedents of foreign countries, notably Germany, Austria, France, Italy and England are adequate for the establishment of zones and districts outside of Manhattan in which the buildings should be restricted to the height of two or three stories for dwellings, which should not be permitted to occupy more than 50 per cent. or 60 per cent. of the lot area. Most large German cities have already established these districts and although permitting five-story tenements in the centre of the city, restrict the height of buildings in outlying districts to two and three stories, and, in some cases, limit the proportion of the lot area that may be covered to 40 per cent. England by its Town Planning Act, passed last year, has given the local authorities of each city the right to restrict the number of cottages per acre to from 10 or 12 or 20 per acre and a maximum density of 100 to the area. This is perfectly feasible in certain sections of New York City to-day, and it is the opinion of the Committee that on the basis of health alone this restriction should be imposed upon the outlying districts of the city.

All the recommendations of the Committee are based upon the health requirements and the Committee in submitting these recommendations respectfully ask

that the Committee on Legislation be instructed to prepare legislation embodying these recommendations and providing for their enforcement.

STATEMENTS PRESENTED TO THE COMMITTEE ON HEALTH.

A. Statement by Mr. Frederick L. Hoffman, Statistician of the Prudential Life Insurance Company.

Q. What is the relation between room overcrowding and mortality rates?

Mr. Hoffman: On that point I would say that there can be no question of doubt but that overcrowding results in a higher death rate. Increasing density of the population is, under normal conditions, followed by an increase in the death rate. The exception to this rule is met with in the case of model tenements, such as the Peabody dwellings, of London, where a death rate is experienced lower than the average. The effect of increased density is most pronounced in the higher mortality of children under 5 years. I have a statement of the Peabody Model Dwellings, in London, since 1891, and the death rate has invariably been lower than the corresponding death rate in London, and it is now down to 13.7 per thousand, while the birth rate is 28.9.

Chairman Cantor: Are the people of these tenements of a higher social grade than those usually found in the average tenement?

A. Yes, I think it is true that they are, but we must remember that the comparison is made with the population of London and not with the slum population, the death rate of which would be perhaps three times as high. In the case of Port Sunlight, outside of London, where model dwellings have been established, the general death rate for a period of 8 years has been only 9.6 to the thousand, while for England and Wales it was 16.7 to the thousand. The birth rate for Port Sunlight, where the conditions of health, as to air, sunlight, space, etc., are unquestionably the best possible for any working class, has been 42.6 to the thousand, against 27.7 to the thousand for England and Wales; that is to say, while they had a larger birth rate, they had a lower death rate, which is practically never met with outside of such living conditions as those at Port Sunlight. The conditions in Essen, among the employees of the Krupp Corporation, have been much the same. There are no statistics for this population, but I have personally investigated the facts and I spent some time there last year, and there can be no question but that the right kind of community building, such as has been carried on at Port Sunlight and by the Krupp Corporation, and at certain other places on the Continent, is followed by excellent results. I would say that what has been done at Essen establishes the principle to be followed here. This principle of municipal action, however, cannot easily be carried into effect except under the proper co-ordination of philanthropy and governmental power, combined with business opportunities, such as Lever Bros. had at Liverpool. This firm combined opportunities for work with opportunities for the most homelike mode of living, and they increased on the one hand the birth rate and on the other reduced the death rate, thus preventing the needless loss of life of the most desirable class of citizens.

Q. You would say that with healthy living conditions here in New York we would both increase the birth rate and decrease the death rate?

A. Unless you do improve room accommodations, I do not believe you will ever increase the birth rate.

Q. Alderman Dujat: What do you think the cause of this?

A. Those who know most about the birth rate of London agree that the decline in the birth rate is due, almost entirely, to artificial restriction, but we must consider that artificial restriction may be in a large measure the result of artificial conditions of life, and that immorality and low vitality may go together as cause and effect. If we do not furnish enough room for the people to live a decent family life, I think the effect on the mind must be profound in causing serious anticipation as to what the future conditions will be if there is a larger family, for which the room space under normal conditions of city life is insufficient. The statistics of Berlin prove conclusively that the mortality of those living in one room was much greater than in the case of those who had sufficient living accommodations in two, three or four rooms. The statistics of Budapest prove that epidemic diseases were decidedly more common among those who lived on dirty premises than among those who lived on clean premises. In the case of a cholera epidemic the respective rates of mortality were 90 cases per 10,000 for the population living in clean houses, against 420 for those living in dirty houses.

The mortality of those living in cellar dwellings or basements has invariably been found to be excessive. In the city of Trieste the number of cholera cases were 9 per 1,000 for those living in basements and cellars, compared with 5 to the thousand for those living in the first story. If you were to be told of what were the

sanitary conditions of this city 40 years ago, you would not think it possible, any more than will the people fifty years hence accept as a standard the housing conditions of the city to-day. We consider it inhuman to-day that even the very poor should live in cellar dwellings underground, without light, good air and dryness, which is so essential for good health, yet little was thought of this sixty or seventy years ago. Just so will the standards of life, housing and working conditions in the future differ from the conditions accepted as tolerable and conducive to longevity at the present day.

The most conclusive modern data concerning the relation of morbidity and mortality to overcrowding are the statistics of Glasgow for the year ending June 30, 1908. There was an epidemic of measles that year and the morbidity of children under one in the families living in one room apartments was 125 per 1,000, against 102 for those living in two room apartments, 27.5 in three room apartments, and 11.1 in four room apartments and upwards. At age 2 the corresponding rates were 232 for one room apartments, 197 for two room apartments, 54 for three room apartments, and 30 for four room apartments. Similar results were observed at older ages.

In Glasgow they have been giving a great deal of attention to this question of housing and the effect on tuberculosis has been observed by Dr. J. B. Russell and Dr. Fife. Dr. Russell has very well said in regard to this question:

"A copious supply of pure air and distribution of direct and diffused sunlight within and without the dwelling are not only wholesome to man, but are directly fatal to the bacilli distributed outside of the animal body. Sunlight is the only disinfectant which sustains the man while it kills the microbe. Therefore, whatever withdraws from the air we breathe impurity of smoke, or dust, or foul exhalation, and from the sky above us that canopy of smoke which reduces our sunshine to twilight, everything which promotes free motion of air without and within the house, every by-law which regulates the width of the street, the height of the houses, the arrangement of the buildings, so as to offer no obstruction to the winds, and to secure as much light and as little shadow in the hours of daylight as possible, which promotes the access of the sun's rays to dwellings, and helps to make the sky visible from the floor of all inhabited rooms, which widens and brightens lobbies and staircases in tenements, which prevents dampness of foundations and walls, every regulation which checks overcrowding both in the house and work place, which protects the artificer from irritation dust and fumes and secures to workers of every degree and kind natural light and pure air in the place of their employment, are all precautions against tuberculosis."

It is obvious, of course, that fresh air is essential, that it *must be had* in order to decrease the death rate, that overcrowding does increase it, and unless we do have more light, air, sunlight, etc., we shall not stamp out tuberculosis, but rather increase it and with it the general death rate. I think, therefore, I have fully answered your last question in the affirmative.

Q. What is the minimum cubic air space that should be provided?

A. I do not feel that I possess sufficient information on that point. Of course, I know that it is generally considered that 3,000 cubic feet per hour is required, but it is quite probable that even as small a proportion as 1,000 cubic feet will be sufficient to maintain a reasonable state of health. From what I know about it, there is a considerable variety of information on this subject, and it is largely a question of the air supply, as well as the quantity and the conditions under which life is lived. If in a state of muscular inactivity, I should consider the required amount less, and in a state of muscular activity probably more, but to answer your question intelligently I do not possess the necessary scientific information.

Q. What changes in the present tenement house law and building law relating to hygienic and sanitary construction would you suggest?

A. My answer to that is practically the same as to the last question. That is a problem for architects and experts on housing conditions, model tenement construction, room accommodations, etc., and not for one untrained in that line of work. I would like to say this much, however, that the mortality in rear tenements, or what they call in England back-to-back houses, is almost invariably excessive. In my investigation of the sanitary conditions of the Trinity Corporation tenements, practically all the elements of the present problem were brought to my attention, and it was made very clear to me that conclusions should only be arrived at after a careful inquiry into the facts. I had a census made of the Trinity population and I had obtained the official death rate from the New York Board of Health for five years, and I found by an exact comparison that the Trinity death rate was actually lower by several points than the rate of the sanitary district in which the tenements were located. It is easy to make suggestions on this question, but they are often extremely

difficult to carry into effect, without the expenditure of much money, which would materially increase the rent item.

Q. To what extent do you attribute the prevalence of tuberculosis in New York City to the housing conditions?

A. There can be no question of doubt but that tuberculosis in New York City is due, to a considerable extent, in more or less exact proportion to overcrowding, want of proper ventilation, want of direct sunlight, exposure and infected interior rooms. While it is held that infection disappears from dwellings after about six months, this, I take it, presupposes exposure to the direct rays of the sun. In any event, the relation of overcrowding to tuberculosis has been precisely established by Sir Shirley Murphy, who has brought out the fact that in London the death rate from phthisis steadily increased with the proportion of the population living more than two in a room in tenements comprising less than five rooms. In districts in which this proportion was under 10 per cent. the tuberculosis death rate per 10,000 of population was 11.1, in districts in which the proportion was from 20 to 25 per cent. the death rate was 17.7, and in districts in which the proportion was over 35 per cent., the rate was 25.9. Upon this point it has been said by Sir Shirley Murphy in his annual report upon the health of London for 1898, that "There is obviously a relation between the amount of overcrowding and the phthisis death rate. The figures do not, however, suffice to show whether the overcrowding caused phthisis, or whether the disease, by adding to family expenditure, or by diminishing the wage-earning power, left less money available for rent, and this brought about the overcrowding, or whether, again, overcrowding is associated with some other condition, or conditions, favorable to disease. In all probability, all these circumstances have tended to produce results." Of course, no figures of this kind must be taken as entirely conclusive concerning one single cause responsible for a particular condition, but, to say the least, the foregoing percentages are extremely suggestive.

If I quote from foreign documents, it is because we have no corresponding data for this country at the present time. We have no police control over the movements of our population, such as they have in many foreign countries, and by means of which we could secure the required information.

Q. What, in your judgment, would it cost to cure those now sick with tuberculosis in the city, and to make them able to continue their work without danger to themselves and others?

A. In my opinion, it would be impossible to even approximately estimate the financial cost of curing those now sick with tuberculosis in the City of New York and to make them able to continue their work without danger to themselves and others. Obviously, this end can only be obtained by institutional isolation of all cases, even the slightly affected, or by providing ideal home conditions, including a thoroughly effective method of nursing, diet, etc., the cost of which is practically prohibitive. All institutional experience with the cure of consumption which has been had in this country or abroad proves that even in the case of incipient patients the stay in the sanatorium should not be less than three months, and, if possible, as long on the average as six months. At a minimum cost of \$1.00 a day, that would mean an expense of about \$200, to say nothing of the expense necessary to establish the required institutional conditions. It has been proven, however, that patients who had been treated 90 days and had been, apparently, cured, after six months' return to the old mode of life and surroundings relapsed to their former condition and returned for further treatment to the institutions. It seems to me that patients should, if possible, be treated for nine months, or even a year, but I am not prepared, however, to suggest any feasible plan to carry out such a suggestion. I do not believe that anyone could estimate, even approximately, what it would cost, but, in any event, the sum would be enormous. I may say that at Loomis they have established a system of keeping trace of their patients and they have gone into the entire history of the treatment of former patients, so that in a year or two there will be results to prove on the one hand the actual cost of institutional treatment and on the other the economic results achieved.

Q. Do you consider it safe for a person who has had consumption to live in the ordinary interior rooms of tenements?

A. I am decidedly of the opinion that it is not safe for a person who has had consumption to live in the ordinary interior rooms of tenements, nor, for that matter, do I consider it entirely safe for a healthy person to do so. I conceive the term "interior rooms" to mean rooms without any direct sunlight exposure.

Q. Do you think it possible by fumigation, or other treatment, even re-papering, whitewashing and painting, to kill the bacilli of tuberculosis in dark or interior rooms, to which direct sunshine never penetrates?

A. I do not think it absolutely safe and entirely possible, by fumigation, or other methods, even re-papering, whitewashing and painting, to kill the bacilli of tuberculosis in dark or interior rooms into which the direct sunlight never penetrates, except at a very considerable expense, which would be totally disproportionate to the renting value of the rooms. Even if this is conceded to be theoretically possible, it would not seem to be actually feasible. In my opinion, it would be decidedly dangerous for a person predisposed to consumption, or suffering from consumption in the incipient stage of the disease, to live in interior rooms to which direct sunlight never penetrates.

I am inclined to think that the city would be justified and perhaps in duty bound to declare such rooms entirely unfit for human occupancy for sleeping purposes, but I am not prepared to say that such rooms cannot be utilized for a large variety of business purposes, but, in any event, this would be a question for individual consideration of the actual facts, which necessarily would vary in many cases.

Q. From the standpoint of conserving the health of the citizens, do you think night inspection of tenements or apartments renting for less than \$15.00 to \$18.00 per month to prevent overcrowding justifiable?

A. No, I do not think it would be advisable to institute a system of night inspection of any tenements or apartments renting for less than \$14.00 to \$18.00 a month, to prevent overcrowding. I believe that it would be proper for the police, upon trustworthy information, to ascertain the facts of overcrowding in individual instances, even by night inspection, but such inspection would not, perhaps, be necessary if a rule were adopted whereby permission to have lodgers would have to be granted by the Board of Health, within a reasonable limit of the room space to be occupied. I believe that the home is the private domain of every man and it should not be subjected to such an inspection, unless for the specific reasons that might be given to the police, and then an investigation should be made, but a general system of night inspection, such as has been suggested, would be a great hardship on many occupants of these cheap apartments, for which there would be no justification at all.

Q. To what extent do you attribute the fact that New York's death rate is higher than that of London, Berlin and several American cities, to the housing conditions?

A. I am not prepared to admit that the corrected death rate of New York City at the present time is really higher than the corresponding death rates of London and Berlin. The crude death rate is at best of doubtful validity in international comparison, for the rate is governed by the age, sex, race, nativity, and occupation distribution of the population, which, of course, is fundamentally different in the case of New York, compared with London and Berlin. We know it to be a fact that certain races and nativities have a decidedly higher death rate than others, and, other things equal, the death rate of the foreign born is much higher than the death rate of the native born. We know that this excess is often due to housing conditions, but unsanitary housing, in all cases, tends to increase the excess in the death rate particularly in the case of young children and the aged. For illustration, according to the census of 1900, the death rate of native born Americans in the registration area of the United States per 1,000, ages 15 and over, were as follows, compared with those of Irish, German, Italian and Scandinavian parentage, respectively:

Parentage.	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-64	65 and over.
United States	5.0	6.4	7.5	14.6	65.9
Ireland	7.5	12.2	15.0	30.6	96.9
Germany	4.8	7.4	9.6	20.3	81.8
Italy	6.6	7.1	9.2	17.2	66.1
Scandinavia	5.7	7.4	9.0	16.9	67.3

In 1909 the death rate of New York City, as determined by the Registrar-General of London, and not as by the New York Board of Health, was given, as 16.2 to the thousand, whereas for London it was 14.0, but if you compare the death rate of 1885 to that of 1901 to 1905, the London death rate decreased 23 per cent. and New York City 31 per cent., so that we are making, apparently at least, a considerable progress, regardless of our large foreign and negro population. Now, for illustration, we might have a community where the death rate would be 12.0 to the thousand, which would be high, if in that community the majority were young men of an age of 19 to 20 years, such as at a military school, for instance, and then we might have a death rate of 50 to the thousand, which would be low if the population con-

sisted chiefly of old people, as, for illustration, at a veteran soldiers' home, or home for the aged.

Q. Would you make any comparison of the death rate of negroes here and those in small rural districts, or Jews and Slavs, etc.?

A. With reference to the Jews of New York City, Dr. Billings made a census of certain districts and found that, in spite of the unhealthy surroundings, the Jews at that time had the lowest death rate in New York City, while in other districts where we might have expected a lower death rate, as, for instance, among the Irish, he found it a great deal higher than among the Jews. In the case of Italian children, it has been proved beyond a doubt that those of the second generation are constitutionally ill-adapted to this climate. Dr. Irving Snow, of Buffalo, is an authority on this question and he has gone into it as far as it seems necessary to prove that the second generation suffer seriously from bronchial troubles, etc. He holds that the climate of New York is so different from that of Sicily and Naples that there is a great deal of suffering among the Italian children on this account, and the majority of them suffer from bronchial troubles, and respiratory diseases generally. Of course, we all know that the sanitary conditions of New York City can be improved, and with such improvements as could be made, and with safety devices in our factories, proper housing and ventilation, and effective methods of dust removal, there is really no calculable rational limit to the average attainable age. A much larger number and proportion ought to live to old age, even to a hundred years, and more, and the tendency seems to be that way, for the death rate of New York City appears to be declining at a greater rate of decrease than the death rate of large European cities.

Q. What measures, to counteract the physical results of room overcrowding and congestion of population, would you suggest?

A. I am decidedly of the opinion that among the most important measures to counteract the physical results of room overcrowding and congestion of population are, first, more open spaces, chiefly in the form of grass plots, to serve as playgrounds for children, provided with some simple gymnastic apparatus, benches, etc., not entailing any considerable expense for care-taking, if any, upon the city. I also am of the opinion that playgrounds should be open on Sunday, with easy accessibility to the use of all the gymnastic apparatus provided, and not only on week-days, as is the present rule. It seems to me that the roofs of a large number of our buildings could be utilized to much better advantage than they are at the present time, and many such buildings might be connected by overhead passageways, or bridges, to increase the possibilities for outdoor exercise, to be closed, of course, at night, to prevent abuse.

There is urgent need of improved methods of artificial ventilation, particularly in public buildings, including schools, and of self-registering apparatus, to indicate the maximum and minimum temperatures in schools, factories, stores, offices, etc., so as to call attention to departures from normal conditions favorable to health and longevity, and any teacher in a school who permitted the temperature of a room to deviate from the normal should be held accountable by the Board of Health. Much can also be done to reduce the smoke, the noise, and the dust nuisances, and a more careful and qualified medical examination of children at work and in school is urgently needed. The Massachusetts system of medical factory inspection of children has, in this respect, decided advantages.

Further than this, I am not prepared to make definite suggestion since the whole question of improved housing is one for architects and other experts on the subject. It has occurred to me, however, chiefly on the basis of European investigations, that we have not realized a definite working theory of controlling the methods of house-building and particularly the development of the suburban sections of our large cities. It is self-evident that the central portions of our principal cities are becoming more and more economic and that the residence portion should, therefore, lie outside of a given zone. The ideal that has been achieved at Port Sunlight and similar places in England, and by the Krupp Corporation, at Essen, suggests at least the direction in which the housing problem in America may ultimately find its best solution. In any event, I am absolutely satisfied that property considerations and so-called rights and privileges of landlords and tenants are secondary to the conservation of the health and life of all the people who make up a community, and that since they are more or less helpless in controlling the deleterious effect of an unfavorable environment, they may rightfully insist upon adequate protection in this respect on the part of the municipality.

Q. Are you willing to state what you would suggest as the ordinary occupancy of rooms, $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 people to a room?

A. For practical purposes we who live in our own homes and have children would not put more than three people in a room, if possible to avoid it, but I should think that under certain conditions and circumstances, even four people may live in a good sized room, with a proper regard to the decencies of life.

Q. You do, of course, where land values permit, think it advisable and beneficial, that families should, where possible, live in two-family houses, where they have more room.

A. Unquestionably. I am willing to go so far as to say that it is not only necessary, but the duty of every large American city like New York, absolutely to control factory and building operations within a radius of, say, fifteen miles of its centre, as a reasonable transportation distance, and the city failing to discharge this duty is guilty of serious neglect towards the most desirable class of its citizens.

Q. Are there any sections here in New York City where the insurance companies refuse to take risks?

A. The answer is that there are no such sections, but some of the companies require that the business operations in large cities shall be carried on with a due regard to the specific death rate in particular sections, and that the actual conditions, moral and otherwise, as they are known to the managing officials, shall be considered, and they do not permit the insuring of persons who fail to conform to a reasonable standard as to what constitutes an insurable risk, and if they find that "the agents" write business in houses that are not fit for human habitation they take cognizance of the fact and see that it does not occur again. There have been some such cases, but the question is asked in the application blanks as to whether the applicant lives in a front or rear tenement, and when the report is unfavorable as to the environments, the case is declined.

You will find some of the best kind of people living in poor sections sometimes, and I found this to be the case in the Trinity Corporation tenements, where a good class of tenants had been living in rather deteriorated tenements for forty and fifty years. It was their *home*; they would not move out, and when it was considered at one time desirable to tear down some of these tenements these same people requested that it should not be done during their lifetime—as a matter of sentiment, no doubt, but sentiment rules the world. It is just the same in every city; for some reason or other, you will find desirable people living in poor districts, and the responsibility for doing so should not rest on these people, but on the community that permits the worst class of people to pollute and spoil a neighborhood.

We lay much of the blame of the conditions in New York on the foreign element we have here, but the city could be made beautiful and a more healthy place to live if the people, as a whole, and as a matter of duty and pride, took the matter more in hand. Just consider how they do these things in Dusseldorf and Frankfort, in Germany. Those two cities are beautiful and they have actually been rebuilt in the past fifty years. They, too, have a foreign element in Germany, but the cities are developed in conformity to a plan whereby the best architects, the best brains of the country, are used for the betterment of housing and other conditions. Our chief trouble is that our reform movements are usually suggested by a group of men who want to do something, but really do not know how, and who finally suggest a plan or measure representing a compromise, or plan not practical or feasible. If these same people would come forward with a well-thought-out plan, similar to those which underlie the development of German cities, no one could raise serious objections, for the suggested measure or plan would rest upon the needs of the people and conform to the best judgment of qualified and impartial minds. The time has certainly come for New York to adopt a definite plan of city development, in place of the present apathy, chaos and hopeless, aimless drift.

B—Statement by Mr. Wilbur C. Phillips, Secretary of the New York Milk Committee.

There is a vital relation between congestion and infant mortality. There are about 125,000 babies born in New York annually, and about 16,000—one in every eight—die.

The Milk Committee made a study, two years ago, of infant mortality in three sections of the city, taking the same number of people in each section—in the wealthy section, 28 blocks on the upper West Side; in 5 blocks near Lenox ave., and in three tenement blocks in the lower East Side—during the two hottest weeks in the year.

In the 28 upper West Side blocks there were no deaths, and in the 5 middle city blocks no deaths of infants, but in the lower East Side tenements, 16 deaths of infants, and if the rate had continued it would have wiped out all the infants. In case of infants fed at the breast, the death rate is much lower than for those artificially fed. A large number of deaths of infants occur in congested districts of the city.

In 357 cases of mothers in care of the Milk Committee eight-tenths of one per-

cent paid less than \$5 per month for rent; 60 5-10 per cent paid from \$5 to \$15; 26 9-10 per cent over \$15 per month.

Mortality rate in the city is 130 per 1,000 among infants under one year of age. In 413 cases under care of the Milk Committee 4.8 per cent live in one room; 12.6 per cent in two rooms; 47.5 per cent in three rooms; 26.4 per cent in four rooms; 6.3 per cent in five rooms; 2.4 per cent in six rooms or over.

The first experiment in supplying instruction to mothers in hygiene was made by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; then at last the Board of Health took up the matter.

It is better to have nurses who educate the mothers connected with the distribution of milk. One hundred and forty-one nurses, paid by the Board of Health, were employed from June to September for this purpose in 1910. Depot nurses should keep office hours one to two hours a day, and the rest of the time visit sick babies and have meetings with the mothers. To distribute milk on a small scale is very expensive. Each distributing center should be run to its full capacity.

Of 1,600,000 quarts of fluid milk, which is brought to New York City daily, only about 60,000 is in bottles.

There are 40,000 to 45,000 farms from which milk is sent for New York City to be inspected, and the present force of the Board of Health is inadequate for this purpose.

Milk brought to a pasteurizing plant should have a certain standard of purity. Milk must be furnished to the poor at a reasonable cost.

Milk could be certified and marked "Baby's Milk," or "Safe Milk," and sold for 15 cents, while pasteurized milk would be safe if sold at 9 cents per quart.

About 500,000 or 600,000 quarts per day would be sufficient for all children under 5 years of age in the city, as children use, ordinarily, one quart per day, or one and one-quarter quarts.

C—Statement by Dr. Wm. H. Parks, of the Department of Health.

Question: What is the relation between room overcrowding and mortality rates, Dr. Parks?

Answer: I can state, from my own knowledge, that the more overcrowding you have the more sickness and deaths there will be. As to the actual amount of such increase I have no statistics and so cannot state definitely. It is the opinion of all who have studied this question that we have increased sickness in overcrowded rooms and increased mortality among those sick. Not only more sick, but of those that are sick more deaths. This is especially true of communicable diseases.

Q. What diseases would you include in that term?

A. Tuberculosis, diphtheria, measles, scarlet fever, cerebro-spinal meningitis, etc., i. e., especially the diseases in which the contagion is spread by the mouth and nasal secretions. The closer people live together the easier it is to spread infection one from the other. This may be by direct contact, by eating utensils, by flies and other sources. Overcrowding means less fresh air for individuals and, therefore, we now know less chance for recovery.

Q. Have you any recommendations as to the number of occupants that should be permitted in a room?

A. I do not feel that I have sufficient knowledge to make a recommendation. The definite study of this matter has not come in my line. If possible, not more than two persons should sleep in the ordinary small city room.

Q. What is the cubic air space you would recommend?

A. I should recommend that persons have, as near as possible, 1,000 cubic feet of air space if their means will permit them to have this amount. Those that are sick need more air than those that are well, so that those that are sick should have all the air that can possibly be given them.

Q. Alderman Dujat—Would you suggest that a man in the first stages of consumption should be placed in a home where that kind of people are taken care of?

A. I think, so far as the health of others is concerned, it is very important to remove those that are even in the early stages of consumption. Their condition may make this inadvisable or impossible. I might state that a study of tuberculosis in young children shows that nearly one-half of infected children have contracted it from having been cared for by a tuberculous nurse or parent.

Q. Is it not true that the lighting of working rooms in factories is equally important in maintaining healthy conditions?

A. Yes, I think it is equally true, depending, of course, on the hours spent in such a place. Should a person have to spend 14 hours in such a place, poorly lighted, etc., it would tend to increase rather than exterminate tuberculosis. We all know

that a person can remain a short time in a theatre where overcrowding is permitted without, as a rule, appreciable bad results.

Q. What would it cost to cure those curable cases now classed as consumption?

A. The best of my knowledge and belief is that three-quarters of those now known to have consumption will die without regard to what can be done for them, as it is only in the early stages that recovery is possible for a large percentage; so that there are some 20,000 in New York City that must die from the progress of the disease they now have.

Q. Are those mostly adults?

A. Yes, probably 90 per cent are adults. Most fatal cases of tuberculosis occur either in the first year of life or after reaching adult size.

Q. What can be done with the housing proposition to handle this problem? Also as a preventive when the family is a specimen for charity, when the breadwinner is sick?

A. The most important thing is to supply a place where good air and good light can be got and away from the crowded city. Next to that give them rooms with good air and good light in the city and sufficient suitable food if they cannot afford it themselves. Every case removed from the city and made comfortable itself will remove one center of infection. At the present time the number of tuberculous cases in the city remains the same; that is, we have as many cases each year as the year before. This means, however, less percentage, because the city is rapidly increasing its population.

Q. You anticipate about the same number of deaths annually, 10,000, under our present method of treatment?

A. Yes, unless we can go ahead and provide a place outside of the city. It will cost about \$500 to establish each bed, and I imagine it would cost \$1 per day for care and maintenance for each person. Of course this low cost is mentioned to cover a large number.

Q. If you removed a person with tuberculosis from a dark room and placed a newly arrived immigrant in same, do you think it should be repapered, painted, or something of that sort done to it?

A. It should be cleaned and disinfected and then would be safe so far as germs are concerned. If the immigrant contracted tuberculosis elsewhere, he would be more likely to succumb to it because the room was dark and would be more likely to infect others in it.

Q. How do you explain that we have so many new cases of consumption in these dark rooms?

A. My opinion is that our knowledge concerning the development of tuberculosis in ordinary houses and dark rooms is extremely limited, because this class of people move so frequently from place to place that it is difficult to trace the origin of the disease. When secondary cases occur among members of a family living together with a tuberculous person these are due rather to personal infection than to the infection in the room itself.

Q. Do you consider it safe for a person who has had consumption to live in ordinary interior rooms of tenements?

A. Anyone that has had consumption should always live in the best possible conditions as to light and air space. It is even dangerous for a tuberculous person who has recovered after leaving the city to return to it and go back into office work or any of the ordinary city occupations. The fact that a person has had consumption proves that he was susceptible and he will usually remain susceptible.

D—Statement by Dr. Woods Hutchinson.

Chairman Dujat put the following questions to Dr. Hutchinson:

Q. What is the relation between room overcrowding and mortality rates?

A. Broadly speaking, the mortality rate in any city or in any ward varies directly with the density of population, the higher the density of population the higher the mortality. Some exceptions, of course, but, in the main, that is one of the axioms of sanitation that the death rate is in proportion to the density of the population. It is also an accepted fact that the size and weight of children at a given age are in direct relation to the number in a room, the fewer in a room, the taller and healthier they are.

Q. What is the minimum cubic air space that should be provided?

A. I think the minimum cubic air space should be 600 feet for adults and 400 cubic feet for children and, better yet, 1,000 cubic feet for adults and 600 feet for children. With a reasonable flow of air 600 feet would make it moderately healthy. This also would apply to factories, except in such factories as are giving off dust and fumes, where 800 to 1,000 feet should be provided.

Q. In your judgment, is it possible to exterminate tuberculosis if occupancy, either

for living or working purposes, of ordinary interior rooms lighted only by a window from an outside dark room which has itself only windows onto a narrow airshaft three to four feet wide is permitted?

A. No.

Q. What changes in the present tenement house law and building law relating to hygienic and sanitary construction would you suggest?

A. I think there should be such changes in the Tenement House Law, or in the interpretation of the law as to prohibit the use of those dark rooms, those that are technically to be regarded as light rooms, those that open into another room. No room in which it is not possible to read in the center of the floor during all hours of daylight is fit for human occupancy. I think there should also be some provision in regard to the number of individuals of different sexes occupying the same room other than husband and wife; also that there should be provision for night inspection of certain tenements to guard against this overcrowding of sexes in the same rooms.

Q. To what extent do you attribute the prevalence of tuberculosis in New York to the housing conditions?

A. I should say that, as contrasted with other cities, the housing conditions here played a very considerable part in the prevalence of tuberculosis, because wages are higher here, food is better, hours for labor are shorter, and the climate is better than in the majority of great European cities and we have a large amount of sunlight as compared with other cities.

Q. What, in your judgment, would it cost to cure those now sick with tuberculosis in the city and to make them able to continue their work without danger to themselves or others?

A. It would cost in the neighborhood of seven to ten million dollars to equip the necessary number of beds for all those now sick with tuberculosis in New York City. The maintenance of these camps and hospitals for the first year would be about five million dollars, but would rapidly diminish after the first year. Chicago is actually starting such a campaign of extermination now and trying to raise the money necessary to lift every case out of the city, which is a source of infection, and thus prevent the spread of the disease to others. We have 10,000 deaths each year, and we breed two cases from every case in the city each year.

The class of people that come from the other side are, as a whole, a healthy and a superior class. We breed two-thirds of our consumption right here in this city. It is absolutely impossible to breed consumption in the open air. A well-lighted and well-ventilated room is practically safe to live in, even with a tuberculous person. It is not enough merely to have a minimum of light in a room, but it is essential that rooms should have abundance of light to make them sanitary. A dark room is never kept clean.

Q. Is there any possible method that you would suggest by which the Health Department and Tenement House Department could co-operate?

A. There is no way out of the situation except for the two Departments to work together. I think it would be perfectly within the power of the Health Department to declare such dark rooms nuisances and menaces to health, and they should be shut up as though they were poisoned wells. They are unfit for human occupancy, as decent living conditions never can be had under such conditions.

In Chicago, Dr. Evans, the Health Officer, issues orders to have such rooms shut up or made sanitary, and looks up the number of deaths from consumption and diphtheria in such buildings and threatens to publish the name in the papers unless his orders are obeyed. As a result of this method, the death rate in Chicago today is lower than that of any other city in the United States of its population.

STATISTICS SHOWING THE RELATION BETWEEN ROOM OVERCROWDING AND CONGESTION
OF POPULATION PER ACRE, AND MORTALITY RATES.

A. In New York City.

The following statement is quoted from a paper, "The Effects of Urban Congestion on Italian Women and Children," by Dr. Antonio Stella, who appeared before the Commission. The statistics are taken from an investigation made by the Department of Health of New York City in 1907-8 and from the State Census of 1905.

While the general death rate for the City of New York in 1905-6 for all ages was 18.35, and under five years was 51.5, in some of the various Italian blocks here examined it was respectively:

Block.	Density of Population per Acre in 1905.	For All Ages.	Under 5 Years.
A	958	24.5	87.03
B	1,107	24.9	92.2
Cslightly under	750	22.4	81.6
Dslightly under	750	22.57	74.7
E	809	22.3	83.12
F	975	23.2	59.5

The death rate for 1905-6 for the entire City for those under five years in the Italian blocks was as follows:

For Acute Respira- tory Diseases. City Death Rate, 12.7. Italian Blocks	For Diarrhoeal Dis- eases. City Death Rate, 12.9. Italian Blocks.	For Diphtheria. City Death Rate, 2.80. Italian Blocks.
A 32.9	A 22.3	A 4.34
B 47.8	B 19.1	B 3.71
C 35.3	C 17.6	C 4.61
D 28.6	D 13.8	D 8.93
E 49	E 19.3	E 3.20
F 17.9	F 14.9	

For the sake of brevity, we call Blocks A, B, C, D, E, F, respectively, the following Italian blocks:

Block A—East 112th, East 113th streets, 1st and 2nd avenues.

Block B—Mott, Prince, Elizabeth, East Houston streets.

Block C—East 114th, East 115th street, 1st and 2nd avenues.

Block D—East 108th, East 109th streets, 1st and 2nd avenues.

Block E—East 106th, East 107th streets, 1st and 2nd avenues.

Block F—Jones, Cornelia, West 4th and Bleecker streets.

Population, Deaths and Death Rates per 1,000, at Different Age Groups, for Years 1905 and 1906, From All Causes, Diphtheria, Acute Respiratory and Diarrhoeal Diseases (Under Five Years), in Certain Square Blocks of the City of New York.
Italian Block No. 2—Mott, Prince, Elizabeth and East Houston Streets.

	Population.		Death Rate.		Diphtheria.		Acute Res- piratory.		Diarrhoeal Diseases.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Deaths.	Rate.	Deaths.	Rate.	Deaths.	Rate.
Under 5 years..	540	610	90.7	93.5	5	4.34	55	47.8	22	19.1
Total.....	1,150		92.2							
5 to 19 years...	950	1,004	2.10	6.0	2	1.02
Total.....	1,954		4.09							
20 to 44 years..	1,194	1,260	9.2	2.38	1	.40	1	.40
Total.....	2,454		5.70							
45 to 64 years..	226	260	39.8	34.6	4	8.21
Total.....	486		37.0							
65 and over....	10	4	400.0	250.0	1	75.5
Total.....	14		357.0							
All ages	2,920	3,128	25.66	24.2	6	.99	63	13.7
Total.....	6,058		24.9							

Jewish Block No. 4—Madison, Henry, Catherine and Market Streets.

	Population.		Death Rate.		Diphtheria.		Acute Res- piratory.		Diarrhoeal Diseases.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Deaths.	Rate.	Deaths.	Rate.	Deaths.	Rate.
Under 5 years..	480	430	58.3	41.9	5	5.49	5	5.5	9	9.9
Total.....	910		50.0							
5 to 19 years...	1,188	1,240	3.37	4.03	2	.82
Total.....	2,428		3.71							
20 to 44 years..	1,570	1,370	8.92	7.30
Total.....	2,940		8.16							
45 to 64 years..	322	352	31.06	22.73
Total.....	674		26.71							
65 and over....	8	32	875.0	62.5	25.0
Total.....	40		225.0							
All ages	3,568	3,424	17.66	12.56	7	1.00	6	.9
Total.....	6,992		15.16							

City of New York—Years 1905 and 1906.

	Population.		Death	Diphtheria.	Acute Respi- ratory Dis- eases.		Diarrhoeal Diseases.	
	Number of	Deaths.	Rate.	Deaths.	Deaths.	Rate.	Deaths.	Rate.
Under 5 years	472,667	24,539	51.5	1,327	2.80	6,019	12.7	6,076
All ages	4,088,780	74,958	18.33	12.9

The statistics of the Department of Health also give figures which show that in the block bounded by Mott, Prince, Elizabeth and East Houston streets, which had

in 1905 a total population of 3,468, there were in the two years 1905 and 1906 a total of 151 deaths. This block is predominantly Italian. In a predominantly Jewish block bounded by Madison, Henry, Catherine and Market streets, chiefly Jewish, the total death rate for 1905 and 1906 was 15.16 per 1,000. The density here, however, is less than 750 per acre. While it is true that the death rate is slightly less than in the City at a whole, the total population in 1905 was only 3,496, while the number of deaths in the two years 1905 and 1906 was 106. This is a much higher death rate than is found among the Jews in country districts.

Dr. W. H. Guilfooy, Registrar of Records of the Department of Health, says: "Italian children have a mortality of almost five times that of the entire city, the Italian children show the highest mortality from scarlet fever and whooping cough, with the Hebrew children a close second; neglect of the use of diphtheria anti-toxin produces a mortality rate from diphtheria among the Italian children of three times that of all other nationalities combined, while among the Hebrew children the rate is almost twice that of the normal average."

Death Rate per 1,000 in Certain Typical Square Blocks, Old City of New York, 1906.

Block.	Type.	General Death Rate.	Pulmonary Tuberculosis.	Cancer.	Heart and Bright's Disease.	Lobar- Pneumonia.	Broncho- Pneumonia.	Diarrhoeal Diseases
A—German	16.30	1.48	2.22	2.96	...	0.74	1.48
B—Austro-Hungarian	16.43	1.21	0.72	2.17	1.93	1.93	1.93
C—Russian-Pole	17.47	0.83	0.83	1.94	1.94	1.94	1.11
D—Italian	19.26	0.96	...	1.74	0.96	8.29	2.31
E—Bohemian	19.57	4.10	1.82	3.19	...	1.82	1.37
F—Irish	24.64	4.78	...	5.05	0.67	1.91	2.70
G—Chinese	34.65	12.47	0.69	5.54	3.46	0.69	...
H—Syrian	35.83	3.91	1.96	1.30	4.57	3.91	3.91
I—Negro	38.56	8.64	0.66	4.66	2.00	5.99	2.66
General rates, entire City.		18.71	2.39	0.75	2.74	1.34	1.37	1.48

"Under the rates from broncho-pneumonia, the most surprising rate of the whole table appears the rate among Italian children, reaching the enormous height of 710 per 100,000, more than seven and a half times higher than that of American children. When we consider under what conditions the Italian families herd together, and the opportunities this affords for the spread of contagious and infectious diseases, the difficulties encountered by the sanitary officers can be imagined but not described.

"The lobar-pneumonia column reiterates the story as to the Italian national predisposition to disease of the respiratory tract. Here the Italian leads, with none of the others a close second."

It is well known that the Italians, Austro-Hungarians and Hebrews are among the most congested people in the City.

Dr. Guilfooy calls attention to the fact that the death rate of the City has practically marked time for several years, and there has been only most insignificant and negligible decrease in the death rate in 1910 from the death rate in 1909.

Morbidity Rates—It is, of course, inevitable that there should be more people sick than those who die, and the following report, prepared by the Standing Committee on Hospitals of the State Charities Aid Association, indicate the total number of those sick with all diseases in 1905, as well as the average duration and days of each disease and the number of each disease for the year 1905. As has been noted, there was a large total number of cases of sickness in addition to the deaths from any and every disease. The deaths from consumption, excluding tubercular meningitis, was 9,014 from 30,046 cases of consumption, and the average duration is given as 500 days, making a total of 15,023,000 days of sickness of consumption, and the average number of people sick daily was 41,159. There was a total of nearly 50,000,000 days of sickness in New York City from all diseases, according to the statement of this Committee, in 1905.

Showing Amount of Sickness in Greater New York in 1905.

Typical Diseases . Names of Disease.	No. of deaths from each disease 1905.	No. of cases oc- curring from each disease 1905	Average duration in days of each disease	Total days sickness from each disease 1905.	Average daily sickness during 1905.
Typhoid Fever	649	4,333	40	173,320	475
Tubercular Meningitis	644	859	60	41,540	114
Pneumonia, excluding broncho pneumonia	5,657	28,285	20	848,550	2,325
Broncho-pneumonia	4,126	13,753	30	825,180	2,261
Diarrhea and enteritis (largely under two years)	5,877	19,590	7	137,130	376
Diphtheria	1,544	13,673	25	341,825	936
Smallpox	9	46	40	1,840	5
Measles	520	52,000	21	520,000	1,425
Scarlet Fever	473	8,071	30	282,485	774
Whooping Cough	408	40,800	10	408,000	1,118
Tuberculosis, excluding tuber- cular meningitis	9,014	30,046	500	15,023,000	41,159
Total, all diseases.....	73,714	1,532,135	32.2	49,434,740	135,396

The density per acre and corrected general death rate of the five Boroughs is as follows for 1909:

	Density per Acre.	Death Rate.	Consumption Death Rate.
Manhattan	167.7	16.40	7.17
The Bronx	13.3	16.12	4.59
Brooklyn	30.9	15.90	4.16
Queens	2.9	16.14	2.55
Richmond	2.1	18.62	2.01

B. In Foreign Countries.

Physical Results of Overcrowding—At Glasgow an exhaustive inquiry revealed the following figures as the result of investigations among 72,857 school children. The schools were divided into four groups, viz.:

	Schools.	Children.
(a) Poorest districts	26	24,661
(b) Poor districts	27	25,348
(c) Better class	11	11,453
(d) Higher class	9	11,395

It was found that so surely as a child was found in group (a) he or she was likely to be smaller and lighter than the children from group (b), and so on with the other groups. But it was when the average height and weight were classified in correlation with the number of rooms in the houses in which the children lived that the most striking results were obtained. Taking the children of all ages, from five to eighteen, the average weight and height, classified according to the number of rooms, was found to be as follows:

	Height. Inches.	Weight. Lbs.
One room:		
Boys	46.6	52.6
Girls	46.3	51.5
Two rooms:		
Boys	48.1	56.1
Girls	47.8	54.8
Three rooms:		
Boys	50.0	60.6
Girls	49.6	59.4
Four rooms:		
Boys	51.3	64.3
Girls	51.6	65.5

Investigations at Edinburgh had similar results, with the addition that it was found there was an equivalent difference in mental power.

An investigation made in Leipsig showed a death rate in rooms with three or more occupants, for adults, 3 times, and for children under 1 year 4 times greater than in rooms with one occupant.

In a recent year the County of Durham, England, in which there was 28.4 per cent. of overcrowding, had a death rate of 18.64 per 1,000, while the County of Essex, with only 2.7 per cent. of overcrowding, had a death rate of 14.03 per 1,000.

The following records of death rates, according to room occupancy, indicate the dire results of too close contact and those conditions of living which such overcrowding indicates. Only by a careful study, such as this, can the results of overcrowding be definitely ascertained, and of course it bears hardest upon infants, who are not able to get out of their free will into the open air. Dr. George Newman, Medical Officer of Health for the Borough of Finsbury, one of London's most congested wards, says:

"We find the highest infant mortality rates occur in the one-roomed homes, and the lowest in the four-roomed homes," and the following table abundantly illustrates his findings:

Size of tenements.	Census popula- tion. 1901.	All Causes. 1905. 1906.		Infant Mortality per 1,000 Births.			
				Diarrhea and other Zymotic Diseases.		Prematurity. Immaturity.	
				1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.
One-room tenement	14,516	219	211	53	67	30	69
Two-room tenement	31,482	157	178	42	56	26	48
Three-room tenement	21,280	141	188	34	43	44	55
Four-room tenement and upwards of four rooms.	33,185	99	121	19	26	19	52
Borough of Finsbury	101,463	148	157	37	45	27	48

Sir Shirley Murphy, Medical Officer of Health, of London, in a report to the Committee on Physical Deterioration, furnished the following information regarding the results in London in 1901.

Proportion of total population living in tenements of one or two rooms.	Death Rate per 1,000 Living.	
	From all Causes.	From Phthisis.
Districts with 0.12 per cent. overcrowding	13.4	1.1
Districts with 12.15 per cent. overcrowding	16.1	1.4
Districts with 15.20 per cent. overcrowding	17.7	1.6
Districts with 20.25 per cent. overcrowding	15.3	1.5
Districts with 25.32 per cent. overcrowding	18.9	1.9
Districts with 32 per cent. and upwards overcrowding	19.7	2.0

Finsbury, 1903 to 1906—Death Rate Per 1,000 Persons From All and Certain Causes in Houses or Tenements of Several Sizes.

(By Dr. George Newman.)

Size of Tenements.	Census Population 1901.		All Causes.			Phthisis.			
	1901.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
One-room tenement	14,516	38.9	40.6	32.7	39.0	4.5	4.5	3.5	3.4
Two-room tenement	31,482	22.6	21.9	19.5	22.5	2.8	2.2	2.1	2.3
Three-room tenement	21,280	11.7	14.7	12.3	14.8	1.2	2.3	1.3	1.4
Four-room tenement and upwards	33,185	5.6	7.5	6.6	6.4	0.63	1.2	0.81	0.93
The Borough Death Rate.....		19.8	21.1	18.9	20.7	2.2	2.5	2.1	2.3

For the purpose of this table it has been necessary to use the census population (1901) for all four of the years included in the table. It should not, however, be forgotten that the population is declining, and the death rates for each year in this table are, therefore, approximate only.

The following tables were prepared by Dr. Herman M. Biggs, of the New York Health Department for London data:

Phthisis.

(Death rate per 1,000 living, 1894-1898 Inclusive.)

Proportion of Total Population Living more than two in a room—in Tenements of Less than Five Rooms,	Death Rate per 1,000 Living.				
	1894.	1895	1896.	1897.	1898.
Districts with under 10 per cent.....	1.07	1.18	1.07	1.14	1.10
Districts under 10 to 15 per cent.....	1.38	1.49	1.46	1.42	1.43
Districts with 15 to 20 per cent.....	1.57	1.64	1.61	1.63	1.61
Districts with 20 to 25 per cent.....	1.58	1.83	1.67	1.75	1.80
Districts with 25 to 30 per cent.....	1.81	2.09	2.06	2.10	2.07
Districts with 30 to 35 per cent.....	2.11	2.42	2.13	2.32	2.42
Districts with over 35 per cent.....	2.46	2.66	2.55	2.64	2.63

Phthisis.

(Death Rates per 1,000 Living, 1898.)

Proportion of Total Population Living (in Tenements of Less Than 5 Rooms), More Than Two in a Room.	0	5	20	25	35	45	55 and up
Districts with under 10 per cent.....	0.23	0.39	1.19	1.50	1.94	2.05	1.77
Districts with 10 to 15 per cent.....	0.39	0.34	1.44	2.13	3.09	2.68	1.91
Districts with 15 to 20 per cent.....	0.62	0.36	1.05	2.01	3.41	3.43	2.36
Districts with 20 to 25 per cent.....	0.57	0.37	1.59	2.39	3.66	4.01	2.78
Districts with 25 to 30 per cent.....	0.78	0.33	1.57	2.58	4.16	4.58	3.04
Districts with 30 to 35 per cent.....	0.81	0.49	2.00	3.00	5.58	6.26	3.26
Districts with over 35 per cent.....	0.85	0.50	1.82	3.25	6.04	6.12	4.41

Dr. Newman remarks: "It may be said that poverty, alcoholism, vice and so forth bring about these variations, something more exact in relation is necessary if its effects alone is to be studied. Of course, overcrowding brings many of the other disabilities, and that is part of the way in which it operates."

Sir Shirley Murphy has shown that for 1891-1900 the infant mortality in districts of London with under 10 per cent. of overcrowding (more than two in a room), is 142 per 1,000 births, whereas, in districts with a percentage of overcrowding over 35 it is 223 per 1,000 births.

Dr. Newman, in his "Health of the State," gives the following statistics:

In overcrowded communities life is shorter than under other conditions. Sir Shirley Murphy has compared the length of life in Hempstead with that in Southwark, a poor and overcrowded district, and he finds that, comparing males in the two communities, out of 1,000 born in Southwark, 326 die before reaching 5 years of age, while in Hempstead, out of 1,000 born, only 189 die before reaching the age of 5 years. Again, out of 1,000 children aged 5 in Southwark, 40 die before reaching the age of 15, while in Hempstead the corresponding number is 24. At ages 25 to 45, when probably, so far as the community is concerned, the economic value of life is at a maximum, the difference in the two communities is most marked. Thus, of 1,000 males aged 25, living in Southwark, 236 die before reaching the age of 45 years, while the corresponding figure for Hempstead is only 125. Expressed in another way, Southwark males lose 13.0 per cent. of the period of infancy, 17.7 per cent. of the school age period, 28.0 per cent. of the working period, and 59.1 per cent. of the period of decline. It has been estimated that the "expectation of life" in Hempstead at birth is 50 years, as compared with 36 years in Southwark.

A more convincing proof of the disastrous physical results of overcrowding appears when we examine the mortality statistics for various districts. For example, in Edgbaston, the suburb of Birmingham, the general death rate is 13.1, in the overcrowded Floodgate area in the middle of the city it is 31.5. In Hempstead it is 9.4 as compared with Finsbury, the most overcrowded tenement district of London, where it is 21.5. In the least overcrowded census of Finsbury, the death rate is 14.4; in the most overcrowded census area it is 31.4.

In 1905 Phthisis was higher in the urban counties of England and Wales than in the rural by 19.3 per cent. Even in the labor towns Phthisis follows density to the acre. In the centre of London or Manchester, or Birmingham, Phthisis mortality is higher than on the circumferences of the towns. There are, of course, many causes for this, but, undoubtedly one is density of population, that is, overcrowding. Dr. Robertson, the Medical Officer of Birmingham, has shown that in the overcrowded Floodgate area in the centre of the city during the five years 1899-1903, the Phthisis death rate was 3.7 per 1,000 of the population, whereas, in Edgbaston, of normal districts, it was only 0.937; that is to say, four times less, or one-fourth as great.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON IMMIGRATION OF THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION. ALDERMAN TRISTAM B. JOHNSON, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee have held six meetings and examined nineteen people at these meetings, and in addition they familiarized themselves with the reports of the Bureau of Immigration, Department of Commerce and Labor, report of the Commission of Immigration of the State of New York, the Federal Immigration Commission, and of various Immigration Commissions other than the State, as well as the practices of foreign countries, the reports of various organizations in the city dealing with this problem, and have had before it the officers of these societies to give them the benefit of their experience with relation to immigration.

Your Committee had a twofold purpose in the view: First, to ascertain the present condition of immigrants in the congested sections of New York City, and, second, to ascertain the relation between immigration and congestion.

SUMMARY OF THE STATEMENTS BEFORE YOUR COMMITTEE.

At the first session of your Committee, Hon. William Williams, Federal Commissioner of Immigration of the Port of New York, was present. He stated that the Department did not follow up immigrants, but merely inquired where they were going and accepted their statement, and did nothing further until they heard from them as having become public charges. He gave it as his opinion that the present phraseology that the immigrant might be deported as "likely to become a public charge" was too indefinite, and that legislation should be enacted to give the authorities a better chance to keep out the undesirables. He thought that two-thirds of the immigrants were not wanted economically, and that probably 25 per cent. of the immigration is stimulated by those on the other side who, while they may not have been agents of steamship companies, nevertheless were agents receiving a commission for those whom they induced to migrate. Mr. Williams stated that he felt quite sure that some of the governments acquiesced in it, as was the case with the Hungarian Government, as he knew that there was a contract between the Government and the Cunard Steamship Line for immigrants coming from Fiume to New York, and that the contract was in his office.

The most important subjects considered by the Committee in relation to the problem of immigration have been:

- 1st. Does immigration cause congestion in New York City?
- 2d. Does immigration cause room overcrowding in New York City?
- 3d. Do immigrants reduce the wages paid to unskilled and skilled laborers in the city?
- 4th. Do immigrants increase the crime and delinquency in the city?
- 5th. Are further measures needed to restrict immigration and distribute immigrants?

The conclusions of the Committee on these subjects are as follows:

First—Does immigration cause congestion in New York City?

The Committee differentiate between congestion and room overcrowding in their study of congestion and immigration, although the Federal Immigration Commission do not do so, but simply state that the word "congestion" is used for convenience and to denote the ratio of adult persons per room and per sleeping room. The result of the Federal Census of 1910 shows that the population of over half the blocks in Manhattan which in 1905 had a density of population per acre over 750 and over, has increased largely from 1905 to 1910, while also most of the density of population per acre of areas with an overwhelming congestion in 1905, have increased during these five years. Most of these blocks are now occupied by immigrants, and although some of them have been naturalized, yet many have been in the country a comparatively short time.

Dr. Walter Laidlaw, Secretary of the Federation of Churches and Christian

Organizations, states that it is a general rule that the greater the density of population per acre the higher the percentage of aliens. Information on this subject presented by those who have appeared before the Committee differs very widely. Mr. Cyrus L. Sulzberger, until recently President of the United Hebrew Charities, stated that immigration does not create congestion of population, although it does increase the population of the cities. Mr. Sulzberger admitted that a large proportion of the immigrants arriving in New York City live in congested districts for a time, but that they invariably improve their financial conditions after being in the city for a time and move to other sections, while it is only their poverty which keeps them in the congested districts. He further urged that density per acre in 1855 and density now must be considered in this relation and the difference in buildings, and the difference between private dwellings should also be taken into consideration.

It was also admitted by Mr. Morris D. Waldman, Secretary of the United Hebrew Charities, that congestion in the lower East Side was caused by economic conditions, that most of the people directly or indirectly were dependent upon the garment industry and that these were situated within walking distance of their homes. So long as the wages are low, making carfare and lunches such a serious item in the workers' weekly budget, and working hours are so long, these conditions of overcrowding will continue.

Dr. Walter Laidlaw submitted a statement with reference to the density of population in the different blocks and the proportion of population in these blocks who were immigrants, especially those living in this country for a short time. He stated that there seems to be a general concurrence that immigrants do live in congested sections of New York City and that the preponderant majority of immigrants or alien population of the city are in blocks with a very high density of population per acre as indicated by the figures of the Federal Census, although the compilation as to the nationalities of these blocks has not been completed for 1910. In this connection the report of the organizations who distribute to their destination immigrants coming to New York City are of peculiar significance. The North American Civic League have arrangements by which they transfer immigrants from Ellis Island to their destination in the city, and they report that during the period from October 5 to November 30, 1910, they distributed 3,499 such persons, exclusive of Hebrews. Of this number 384 were placed below Chambers street in Manhattan, 1,400 between Chambers street and 42d street, while only 491, less than one-half of the total number, went to Brooklyn—that is, over one-half were sent to Manhattan below 42d street. It may also be noted, in passing, that the majority of these were Greeks—1,816—of whom 277 located below Chambers street, and 880 between Chambers street and 42d street. The Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society reported that for the month of November, 1910, 732 immigrants immediately upon arrival were taken to their destination. Of this number 584 were men, 116 women and 32 children. Considerably over one-half, 424, were located below 14th street in Manhattan, 114 in Manhattan north of 14th street; in other words nearly three-fourths were located in Manhattan, while only 145, or roughly one-fifth, were destined for Brooklyn and suburbs, and only 49 were for points outside of New York City. These figures, while not of course covering a sufficient number of families or sufficient period of time to permit of wide generalization, are fairly significant of the way in which immigrants are coming directly to the present congested districts of New York City.

Second—Does immigration cause room overcrowding in New York City?

Upon this question the Committee have secured information from a number of sources.

1st.—The Federal Immigration Commission in their abstract of Report of Immigrants in Cities recently issued, states that there is a very large percentage of room overcrowding among immigrants. In 2,667 households in which they made investigations in New York City, they state in Table 11 that 5.13 per cent. of the households occupied apartments of three rooms, 10.2 per cent. two rooms, while 23.2 per cent. of the households had two or more occupants per room in the entire household, table 14. (The Commission have taken the standard of two persons to a room as overcrowding instead of one and a half, which is generally considered in America to constitute overcrowding). Even on their own standard, nearly one-fourth of the families were in overcrowded rooms. The Federal Immigration Commission also report that of the 2,648 families in New York City concerning whom they have complete data, 1,944 or nearly three-quarters had two persons or more per sleeping room. In New York City 24.6 of the families, nearly one-fourth, take lodgers or boarders, and in these families the average number of lodgers or boarders is 1.87. Some idea as to the overcrowding of rooms which this indicates can be appreciated when it is recalled that New York tenements are conspicuous for very small rooms as well as for the dark-

ness of their rooms. The Committee have, however, made further and direct investigation as to the overcrowding in rooms among immigrants. The Tenement House Department have investigated several blocks in various sections of the city, especially near 149th street and Morris avenue, in The Bronx, in the western part of Brooklyn and on the lower east side and the west side of Manhattan. They found a large number of rooms having over two, three and four adults per room, and occasionally five, six and over per room, and in a few isolated cases, as many as seven, eight, ten and twelve in a room, while over 25 per cent. of the overcrowded families in the blocks investigated were found to be living in overcrowded rooms, even upon the basis of the requirements of the present Tenement House Law that rooms shall not be so overcrowded that there shall be less than 400 cubic feet of air space for every adult and 200 cubic feet of air space for every minor under 12 years of age (full report of the Tenement House Department is attached).

Similar conditions were found in investigations made from time to time in the crowded sections of the city. Thus in February and March, 1908, an investigation was made of 174 scattered Italian families in lower Manhattan and in Little Italy, in which it was found that out of 255 rooms, 191 had three occupants or over per room. Similarly during 1907 a study was made of 367 families in the block bounded by Mott, Prince, Elizabeth and East Houston streets, with immigrants from various parts of Italy. Out of a total of 405 rooms, 319 were found to have two adults sleeping in them and 45 had two and a half sleeping in them. A study of the overcrowding in tenements, made by the settlements in February, 1910, indicated that of 91 typical families studied in Manhattan and Brooklyn, less than one-half had two occupants per room; one-quarter had two and a half, one-seventh three, one-ninth three and a half, and one-eighth four per room or over, while two cases were reported of six people in a room. One-sixth of the families lived in two-room apartments, one-half in three rooms, while most of them took in lodgers to help pay the rent. In several instances parents and children, with three to eight adult lodgers, occupied a small apartment of two, three or four rooms.

Members of the Commission have also visited the congested blocks of New York City and seen there themselves a great deal of room overcrowding, which is included in detail in the report of the Committee on Housing.

Third—Are newly arrived immigrants able to maintain themselves in congested districts with high land values and high rents, and do they reduce the wages paid to unskilled and skilled laborers in the city?

On these points, too, the Federal Immigration Commission furnish valuable information. They state on page 11 of the report on Immigrants in Cities (section 10) that the rents in New York City average \$3.89 per room per month, and in Cleveland only \$2.03 per room per month, that is, the annual rent in New York City for a three-room apartment would be \$66.96 more than in Cleveland. The evidence presented to the Committee as to the ability of immigrants to earn enough to maintain themselves and families in New York City immediately upon arriving here varies extremely, some of the witnesses claiming that immigrants take lower wages in order to maintain an existence on the theory that starvation knows no minimum wage, while others asserted that they were able to secure adequate wages immediately upon arriving in New York at the work which they wished to undertake, that is, at unskilled labor. The report of the Commissioner General of Immigration shows, too, that a large proportion of the immigrants arriving in New York State every year are unskilled laborers, the total varying from 40 to 45 per cent., while approximately 30 per cent. have no occupation, including women and children. A large proportion of these classes, of course, remain in New York City.

Mr. Lajos Steiner stated that peasant immigration laborers are, except in very rare cases, at once self-supporting, and that immigrants do not tend to reduce the wages in New York City and so lower the standard of wages. He claimed that the lodging accommodations obtainable for a laborer earning \$2.50 per day might be, rather than immigration, the cause of congestion.

Mr. J. N. Francolini stated that immigrants could secure employment and be self-supporting as soon as they reach here, but that their own people were taking advantage of the immigrants and exploiting them shortly after their arrival.

Mr. Cyrus L. Sulzburger said statistics show the average wage paid in the clothing industry in the United States as given before the Industrial Court, were higher than the average wages in the country, but did not indicate how this raises the standard of wages paid unskilled laborers in New York City. The Federal Immigration Commission also gives figures indicating that in New York City there are less than 9.7 per cent. of the immigrants in 2,558 households paying under \$3 rent per month per room, while 45.5 per cent. were paying over \$4 per room per month; the average rent per person, moreover, of these 2,558 families in New York City is over \$3 in

the case of 49.6 per cent. of the households, indicating that the minimum rent for a family of five in practically one-half of the cases is \$15 per month. The information brought out before the Committee on Labor and Wages in reference to wages paid to foreigners in the City works at the Catskill Aqueduct indicate that there were two prevailing rates of wages, that of natives in the district in which the work was being done, and that of immigrants, and that the tendency of contractors was always to secure immigrants from New York City and pay them the prevailing rate of wages of immigrants in those districts, from \$1.60 to \$2 per day. They stated that the net earnings of many of these immigrant families are only \$400 to \$500 a year, and admitted that it would not be possible for American families to maintain themselves upon these wages, but they could get immigrant workers at these wages. The most convincing evidence, however, in the opinion of the Committee, regarding the question as to whether an immigrant upon reaching New York is able to earn enough to maintain himself and family, is the fact that \$800 is the minimum upon which a man, his wife and three children under working age can maintain themselves in Manhattan and most of The Bronx and Brooklyn. This means, of course, an adequate number of rooms for the family and sufficient food and clothing, so that the family may not only be able to maintain themselves at present, but save a reasonable amount. Immigrants in the main are not getting this wage for some time after coming to New York City. The evidence presented by Mr. C. L. Sulzburger shows that Hebrews, for instance, live in most congested conditions for a series of years in the effort to save enough to get out of congestion and afford the American standard of living, but that they live for a period of from five to seven and eight years in these conditions. His only contention was that there are worse conditions than these conditions for people to live under, since in certain countries they are not allowed to live at all.

Prof. Henry R. Seager, of Columbia University, stated that the evidence tends to show that the immigrants are reducing wages in New York City, although he could not give figures indicating to what extent this has and is being done.

It is evident that many immigrants come to America for the purpose of earning enough to return to their own country, and while here live at a low standard, as stated by the reports of the Bureau of Immigration and admitted by many witnesses before your Committee. Many of them stay in New York City and work for practically any wages they can get, this being considered thrift. The housing conditions in New York City are responsible for the slaughter of many thousands of immigrants annually, as well as for the slaughter of many American citizens. This is not uniquely a question of immigration; the insanitary housing conditions, however, have resulted in placing a very heavy burden upon the charities of the city. Definite figures are not available as to the extent to which immigrants cause this large expenditure. Mr. Sulzburger pointed to the fact that a comparatively small number of immigrants arriving during a year call upon the charities of the city for assistance during that year. He admitted, however, that many of these immigrants are living below the standard of efficiency, and while they are not dependents at present they will inevitably become dependents if the wage earner becomes sick and unable to provide for his family, through insufficient nutrition and improper housing conditions. How many immigrants are maintained during the first three or four years of their residence in New York by private charity, so that they will not become public charges and therefore subject to deportation, is not known.

Fourth—Do immigrants increase crime and delinquency in the City?

The Committee have not had sufficient evidence presented based upon the knowledge of present distribution of immigrants in New York City, to prove whether there is any larger percentage of crime and delinquency among immigrants living under normal conditions of density and room occupancy than among native-born Americans, with the exception of those lapses or failures to comply with city ordinances which they do not understand.

Reference has been made, however, in the evidence presented before the Committee to the disregard of the rights of property by immigrant tenants and the wilful demolition of and injury to such property very frequently. On the other hand the tendency of congested conditions of immigrants is to impel them to misdemeanors of various sorts.

Fifth—Are further measures needed to restrict immigration and distribute immigrants?

The Committee appreciate that the present system of distributing immigrants is inadequate as the statistics show the total number of immigrants distributed by the charitable agencies, employment exchanges and the City, State and Federal institutions aggregate so far as can be ascertained less than 60,000 persons a year, counting even those that have been placed two and three times, while the city's population increases very rapidly.

In his evidence before the State Commission on Immigration in New York in 1909, Mr. Sulzburger, who was at that time President of the Industrial Removal Agency, which is exclusively concerned with the distribution of Hebrews of New York City, stated:

"A careful scrutiny is made by the office here of all applicants for removal and of the total number who apply; less than one-half ($\frac{1}{2}$) are sent. Only those are selected who, upon investigation, give promise of making successful workers. *The shiftless, the lazy and the incompetent are carefully weeded out and refused consideration.*"

These classes are apt to remain in New York City and they inevitably make serious problems for the City authorities or for private charities. It is unfortunately the case that the public is obliged to look after these people in the long run and the authority which is ultimately held responsible for the support of the immigrants must be permitted to exercise closer control over them.

As to the physical conditions of immigrants in New York City, adequate statistics have been prepared by Dr. William H. Guilfooy, Registrar of Records of the Board of Health, and by Dr. Antonio Stella, a prominent Italian physician, showing that the death rate among Italians is extremely high, and even among Jews in the congested districts is much higher than the normal death rate among Jews living in smaller cities and rural districts.

The Committee believe that immigration undoubtedly causes undue congestion of population per acre and frightful room overcrowding under the present laws, and with the present attitude of the public toward the enforcement of these laws. The Committee, however, equally feel that the conditions existing among immigrants in New York City to-day are due primarily not to the fact that we have such a large number of immigrants, but distinctly to the four following facts:

1st. The merciless way in which immigrants have been exploited by the real estate interests, manufacturing interests, railroads and bankers.

2d. That the immigrants coming here in recent years from countries where they are used to close police supervision and control find in our American cities no control over them such as they have been accustomed to, while they desire to avoid even restraint, and some decline to obey even the laws they thoroughly understand.

3d. To the City and State's failure to exercise proper control over immigrants and to enforce the laws of the City and State in this regard.

4th. To the lack of control by the City over the real estate interests, the traction interests, including the railroads of the City, and failure to enforce the laws with reference to these interests.

The presence of immigrants in large numbers in this country has been an excuse for the continuation of congestion and room overcrowding, but is not necessarily the primary cause of these conditions.

The Committee, therefore, in making their recommendations as to methods of dealing with immigration to prevent congestion, appreciate that the problem is not purely a city problem, that it is as well a State and Federal problem. They would, however, make the following recommendations, dividing them into three parts: Federal action, Municipal action and State action, since they feel that the problem is not primarily a problem of restricting immigration as suggested by the Federal Immigration Commission to a certain percentage of the average of each arriving during a given period or year, to those unable to read or write in some language, and the exclusion of unskilled laborers unaccompanied by wife or family, and placing a limitation of the arrivals annually at any port, or even materially increasing the amount of money to be in the possession of immigrants at the port of arrival.

The Committee feel, however, that emphasis should be laid on admitting every class of immigrants upon probation for a definite period of time, that the right of deportation or rejection must continue during that time, and that citizenship or even residence in the country must be made more valuable or valued, and closer supervision and control over immigrants exercised by Federal authorities by States and by Localities.

Recommendations of the Committee on Immigration.

The Committee recommend:

First—Policies which, in their judgment, must be undertaken to prevent immigrants from working in congested districts and from living in overcrowded rooms.

Second—Matters which the Committee believe should be taken up at once.

I. Recommendations in Reference to Policy Which in Their Judgment Must Be Undertaken to Prevent Immigrants From Working in Congested Districts and From Living in Overcrowded Rooms.

Large numbers of poor and unskilled immigrants are allowed to remain in this country under no supervision or control by the Government unless some flagrant breach of the law is brought to official notice or unless they become charges upon

the public charities. While this continues, the congestion of immigrants in tenements and room overcrowding will continue.

The Committee have studied with care the main recommendations of the Federal Commission on Immigration and especially those dealing with the restriction of immigrants and methods of restricting immigration. While they recognize, as pointed out in the conclusion which the Committee have reached with the evidence presented to them, that with present laws, immigration produces to some extent this congestion and room overcrowding, the Committee nevertheless feel that the prevention of these two evils require not so much a policy of restriction as of distribution. They would agree entirely that immoral characters, those with criminal records and diseases, and persons of similar classes should be excluded as suggested by the report of the Federal Immigration Commission, also that the same law should apply to those coming to the country as seamen. On the other hand, in their judgment the distribution of immigrants who are now living in congested districts, the prevention of room overcrowding among these immigrants as also the prevention of these conditions among others than immigrants that come in the future, can be prevented by measures other than those of exclusion suggested by the Federal Immigration Commission. The objects to be obtained by exclusion as suggested by the Federal Immigration Commission are as follows:

"(a) That as far as possible, the aliens excluded should be those who come to this country with no intention to become American citizens or even to maintain a permanent residence here, but merely to save enough by the adoption, if necessary, of low standards of living to return permanently to their home country. Such persons are usually men unaccompanied by wives and children.

"(b) That a sufficient number be barred to produce a marked effect upon the present supply of unskilled labor.

"(c) That as far as possible the aliens excluded should also be those who, by reason of their personal qualities or habits, would least readily be assimilated or would make the least desirable citizens."

The following methods of restricting immigrants have been suggested by the Federal Commission:

"(a) The exclusion of those unable to read or write in some language.

"(b) The limitation of the number of each race arriving each year to a certain percentage of the average of that race arriving during a given period of years,

"(c) The exclusion of unskilled laborers unaccompanied by wives and families.

"(d) The limitation of the number of immigrants arriving annually at any port.

"(e) The material increase in the amount of money required to be in the possession of the immigrants at the port of arrival.

"(f) The material increase of the head tax.

"(g) The levy of the head tax so as to make a marked discrimination in favor of men with families.

"All these methods would be effective in one way or another in securing restriction in a greater or less degree. A majority of the Commission favor the reading and writing test as the most feasible single method of restricting undesirable immigrants."

The Committee urges that appropriate legislation be enacted to do away with the limitations now placed upon the authority of the Government to deport aliens for cause. In the judgment of the Committee, there should be no time limit set upon this right.

The first essential to securing a normal distribution of immigration is to prevent an abnormal congestion where they are not needed and are only a menace to the community and to themselves because inevitably victims of exploitation or charity, the ultimate results of which are almost equally bad. In order to accomplish this, it is essential that the Federal Government adopt more progressive measures to keep in closer touch with and more immediate control over the immigrant until he becomes naturalized.

The number of unskilled laborers in any industrial, commercial, construction or agricultural community should not exceed a certain proportion of the total population of the community gainfully employed. When it does exceed such a proportion, the tendency is in most trades inevitably to employ unskilled labor at very low wages to do skilled work. As has been abundantly demonstrated, most immigrants are unskilled laborers and tend to lower wages below the minimum required to maintain the American standard of living. The amount per year, *i. e.*, the minimum wage, of course, varies in different places.

It is, however, important that working men who wish to maintain a decent standard of living should not have their chances imperilled by unskilled immigrants. To prevent this, a first step is to establish the standard of living conditions which may

be properly designated American. This must be substantially identical throughout the country, and although localities can enforce a standard of housing, *i. e.*, the cubic air space required for each occupant of a house or tenement, the proportion of yard area per lot, angle of sunshine and light for rooms, they will be greatly assisted in this as well as in securing proper standards of feeding by the force of publicity as to actual conditions.

The Committee urge that a Department of Labor co-ordinate with the Department of Commerce is most important. This has been urged by the American Federation of Labor, but their plan should be somewhat broadened so as to include the investigation of and the immediate publicity of the actual living and social conditions in the cities and agricultural districts along the following lines:

1. Wages, methods and frequency of payment to the skilled and unskilled trades.
2. Unemployment, extent and causes of; whether permanent or intermittent, and possibility of securing other or supplementary work at times of idleness of stated trades.

3. Hygienic conditions in factories and other places of employment,

4. Housing conditions; rent for two, three, four or five-room apartments within walking distance of work and transit facilities and fares.

5. Cost of main staples of consumption.

6. Educational, social and recreational opportunities, and the predominating nationalities or races.

7. Labor conditions; whether the shops are closed, open or preferential; attitude of labor unions toward unorganized labor, and situation as to strikes.

Such an investigation, followed by due publicity, should show the real and not the nominal rate of wages.

Such investigation has ample precedent in the investigation being made by the Federal Bureau of Labor of conditions of women and child labor, and recently made of the Bethlehem Steel Company. Similar investigations are made in England by the Boards of Trade, and by similar bodies in Continental countries.

It will be much easier to secure impartial reports and statements from Federal Investigations than from either local or state investigations, and the results will be: To indicate where workers skilled or unskilled are needed, and where conditions are such that to send immigrants or other unskilled workers will simply further clog the labor market already overcrowded and render the difficulty of securing decent living wages even greater, and will enable the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization to direct the location of immigrants to great advantage.

It stands to reason that there is no demand for cheap labor in the cities of the United States where there is now a large surplus of unskilled and unemployed workers and where the cost of living is so great that unskilled laborers cannot earn the minimum or living wage, and therefore should not attempt to locate.

It is nevertheless to such places, *i. e.*, the larger cities of the country that many immigrants are going.

Evidence presented before the Committee shows that although some immigrants develop diseases after coming to this country due to conditions prior to their arrival, that the conditions under which they are living in this country impair the health, vitality and earning capacity of a large proportion of them.

The Committee recommend that a system more nearly similar to the Canadian system should be adopted and measures taken for carrying it into effect by which immigrants coming for farm labor may be admitted and be directed to farm labor, and they raise the question whether it would not be preferable within a short time, as soon as the Federal Government can develop a proper system of control of conditions of labor, to reconsider the contract clause of the Immigration Law. In their judgment, the suggestion made as to the supervision of immigrants by the Federal Government will not constitute a menace to labor standards of the country and the welfare of the laborers of the country.

The Committee recommend that most drastic measures be taken to prevent the artificial stimulation of immigration now in active operation.

II. Recommendations in Reference to the Matters Which the Committee Believe Should Be Taken Up at Once. Steps to Be Undertaken by the Municipal Government to Prevent Congestion of Population and Room Overcrowding Among Immigrants.

First—The Committee recommend that the law regarding room overcrowding be vigorously enforced and in making this recommendation they realize that the difficulty in so doing is very great, but not unsurmountable, although added machinery of Government may be needed to secure adequate enforcement. In the judgment of the Committee this can best be done by placarding the rooms, apartments, etc., showing the number of occupants, adults or minors, or both, permitted in the apart-

ment. This should of course be in the language of the occupants and will tend to impress upon them the necessity of complying with the mandates of the law, although they are probably in complete ignorance of the existence even of the law at the time.

Second—The Committee recommend that since there is now a State Bureau of Industries and Immigration designed to protect the interests of immigrants in New York State, co-operation in the enforcement of the law regarding overcrowding of immigrants in rooms should be urged upon this Bureau, since they already know where immigrants are located and are endeavoring to assist them in adapting themselves to conditions in New York City, as has been indicated earlier in the report by arranging for their transferring directly from Ellis Island to their destination in the City. Only in this way can enforcement of this law be secured among newly arrived immigrants, and the Committee would suggest further, that the Bureau of Industries and Immigration should be urged to make careful inspection of the conditions under which immigrants are living, especially as to overcrowding in rooms, since this feature would be uniquely difficult to have generally applied throughout the City, and to report to the Tenement House Department cases of violation of the law against overcrowding.

Third—It is well known and has been demonstrated to the Committee that there are many recent immigrants in New York City to-day unable to maintain themselves in congested districts without room overcrowding because they are not earning enough upon reaching New York City. It is equally true that many of the immigrants who have been here for some time are unable to earn the minimum living wage for the City.

The Committee therefore recommend that the City and State alike should acquire tracts of land in the City and State respectively, where immigrants who have had some training as farm laborers may have an opportunity to live and work as farm laborers. Ample precedent for such action by the State is to be found in the various State Institutions. Thus at the State Agricultural and Industrial School at Industry, located upon a tract of 1,432 acres, are 19 farm colonies of the type suggested for immigrants. Boys ranging in age from 7 to 16 years are committed to this institution and all the labor on the farm and gardening is done by the boys for whom the school cares. The total value of all farm products for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1910, was \$37,913.36, and the total cost, including interest on the original investment with farm stock, tools, etc., and on land used purely for farm purposes, 1,200 acres, was only \$17,244, leaving a net balance of over \$20,000. Similar results may under proper management be expected from such farms as suggested by your Committee.

Fourth—The Committee appreciate that the heights of tenements should be reduced if immigrants or others are to live at less than a given maximum density of population per acre, but they recognize that this applies to all residents of the city and is based upon economic conditions of the individual family and not primarily upon race or nationality.

Fifth—The Committee recommend that a list of night schools in New York City be given all immigrants arriving at Ellis Island, giving New York City as their destination, with a statement of the advantages which can be derived from attendance of these schools in helping people to learn English, since as Mr. G. E. di Palma Castiglione, manager of the Labor Information Office for Italians, stated before the Committee:

"The ignorance of English is the strongest barrier to the distribution of immigrants and it is the main cause of their colonizing in certain places. Foreigners who do not know English feel lost when they are not surrounded by people who understand their own language. There are many immigrants who have never gone out from the districts inhabited by their countrymen.

"Ignorance of English prevents foreign laborers from becoming acquainted with opportunities existing outside of the places where they live."

Mr. di Palma Castiglione advocated compulsory teaching of English to each adult resident of the city who cannot prove that he does know the language. In the judgment of the Committee this is not entirely feasible at present, but the plan they outline with the co-operation of the Department of Industries and Immigration can be carried out fully. The early knowledge of English is essential to the real assimilation of immigrants and not only to help them to secure employment but as well to protect them from exploitation.

Sixth—The Committee recommend that legislation be introduced amending the present procedure of the courts so that the aliens subject to deportation on conviction of crime shall be convicted by the Court and sentence suspended instead of having them serve it in prison, while they are immediately deported. At the present time many aliens convicted of crime are employed in manufacturing in the State Prisons

while immigrants and citizens alike are without work. In the judgment of the Committee the giving of this work to people now living in congested districts would be of material help to them.

STATEMENT SUBMITTED TO THE COMMITTEE ON IMMIGRATION.

A. Statement Submitted by the Hon. William Williams, Federal Commissioner of Immigration.

Mr. Williams expressed the opinion that the present laws were not adequate to keep all undesirables out of the country. They are good so far as they go when properly enforced, but they do not reach a class of immigrants whose standard of living is so low as to render their competition with the American workman too low for the latter. He was of the opinion that, if a way could be found to keep out, say, 20 or 25 per cent., of the immigrants coming here representing the poorest elements, the country would be better off. He favored good immigration as strongly as he was opposed to bad immigration.

He stated that the Government does not follow up immigration after they land. It takes their statement as to where they are going, and, except in rare instances, does nothing further unless they are reported back as having become public charges or entered in violation of law (in which case within three years they may be arrested and deported).

When asked whether he considered the present immigration natural or artificial, Mr. Williams stated that a certain proportion of it was stimulated and artificial. What proportion of it is not easy to say, perhaps 15 or 20 per cent. The stimulation occurs largely through runners who, though not regular agents of the steamship lines, nevertheless receive a commission for those whom they induce to emigrate. To what extent foreign governments are active in sending immigrants to the United States is not definitely known. It is not unlikely that various governmental agencies abroad are not averse to seeing their undesirable emigrate.

Asked as to the distribution of immigration by Government methods, Mr. Williams said that, if the United States is to continue to allow people to come here who will not distribute themselves, then the next best thing to do is to try and distribute them. It remains to be seen how successful such attempts will be. It is an extremely difficult matter to make people go and stay in places not of their own selection.

Much of the difficulty with the undesirable minority of its immigration consists in the fact that it persists in going to the congested districts, where its presence is not required. Many of to-day's immigrants do not possess the characteristics needed to make them successful at farming or developing new territory.

B. Part of Statement Submitted by Mr. Cyrus L. Sulzberger, President of the United Hebrews Charities.

He said that we must not approach the subject of congestion in any state of hysteria, as this is not the best state of mind in which to deal with a great question, in which the prosperity of the City is involved. We have to deal with a great problem in the greatest city of the United States, and to remedy an evil without destroying or lessening the greatness of the city. This must be done with calmness and deliberation, and with a full familiarity of all the facts and influences involved.

It is a mistake to suppose that the congestion in The City of New York is due to immigration. Even so far as congestion is due to increase in population, it is not due to immigration, because the increase in population has been greater in other cities than it has in New York, and particularly than it has in the Borough of Manhattan, which is the congested borough of The City of New York. The increase in population since the last census is for the whole City, 37.7 per cent., and for the Borough of Manhattan, 26 per cent. Many cities in the State have grown largely in excess of this.

The returns from these widely scattered cities, which could be multiplied indefinitely almost, many of which are not affected by the tide of immigration, indicate that the growth of cities is due to other causes. It will probably be found when the census returns are complete that the increase in population of cities is far in excess of the increase in foreign-born residents, and is due to a tendency to urban industrial production rather than rural. There has been a continuous draft on the part of the cities from the country, and to the extent that immigration has settled in cities, it has checked such draft.

Increase in population per acre does not necessarily mean increase in congestion. It may mean housing facilities for a larger number. A small three-story tenement house, remodeled from a private house, such as abounds on the west side of this City, may be replaced by a model tenement, containing housing facilities for many times the number of the original building and with far less congestion.

Replying to the statement that the immigrants lower the American standard of living because of the low wages that are paid, the following is quoted from the testi-

mony of Mr. Sulzberger before the House of Representatives' Committee on Immigration and Naturalization at the hearing held on March 11, 1910:

"The men's and women's clothing industry is one which is almost exclusively in the hands of these immigrants, both as employers and employees, and gives us, therefore, an almost perfect illustration of their influence upon industry, and their tendency to reduce or elevate the standard of living. We find by the Census Report on Manufacturing (part 1, 1905, p. 234, table 169) that, while the product of all industries increased from \$11,411,000,000 in 1900 to \$14,802,000,000 in 1905, an increase of 29.7 per cent., the clothing industry increased from \$436,000,000 in 1900 to \$604,000,000 in 1905, an increase of 38.5 per cent. In other words, while in 1900 clothing formed 3.8 per cent. of all industries, in 1905 it formed 4.1 per cent. of all industries. Only last month a clothing manufacturer from New York returned from abroad, having established agencies in London, Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Brussels and other cities for New York made clothing. This is the second or third manufacturer who has recently put American-made clothing into European markets, and in all likelihood a large foreign commerce in manufactured clothing, the product of immigration labor, will ensue."

In reply to the suggestion of the Secretary that wages paid to the highest grade of workers influence the average, Mr. Sulzberger agreed that this was so, but attention is drawn to the fact that it is equally true in all other industries, and if the wages paid to immigrants are as high or higher than those paid to others, it follows that they do not lower the standard.

In reply to the suggestion made by one of the previous speakers that immigration lowers the political morality of the country, Mr. Sulzberger quoted conditions existing in some of the rural communities where, despite the fact that the population was almost wholly native, a shocking condition was disclosed as to the very common purchase and sale of votes.

Mr. Sulzberger said on the subject of assimilation that this was a difficult term to define. He believed that no better test of assimilation could be found than the extent to which the immigrants take advantage of having their children educated. Upon this subject he quoted the following figures:

"We find by the census report (population, part 2, table 10, p. 106) the following percentage of illiteracy:

	Native Parents. of Native Whites	Foreign Parents. of Native Whites
"United States	5.7	1.6
"North Atlantic	1.7	1.5
"South Atlantic	12.0	2.1
"North Central	2.8	1.3
"South Central	11.6	6.8
"Western Division	3.4	1.3

So that in every separate division the illiteracy is greater among native-born children of native parents than illiteracy among the native-born children of foreign parents."

From all the instances thus cited, industrially, politically and educationally, Mr. Sulzberger drew the inference that immigration has not the tendency to degrade any of our standards in these regards.

In reference to the statement made by Dr. Laidlaw that 11 per cent. of the Russian immigrants into the United States in the past 50 years was now residing in the section south of 14th st. and east of 4th ave., Mr. Sulzberger called attention to the fact that what this meant was that a part equal to 11 per cent. of the total was residing there, but not that 11 per cent. of each year's immigrants were there. What he desired to bring out was the fact that the population on the lower East Side was a continual shifting population, settling on the lower East Side immediately after arrival and moving away therefrom as soon as financial and social conditions warranted. People naturally sought in the first instance to associate with those people who spoke their own language, but, after they had been here a few years and succeeded in finding their bearings, they left that section and moved elsewhere. While there is continually a congested population on the lower East Side, it is not continually the same population, but different people who lived under these congested conditions for a comparatively short period of time.

The moving of industry from the Borough of Manhattan to outlying boroughs will not of itself cure congestion, unless accompanied by restrictive legislation as to the height of buildings and the number of persons permitted to live in one room, as

otherwise new quarters and congestion will arise about the removed industries. In the Borough of Manhattan the height of buildings, both in offices and factories, and especially for factories, should be restricted, and the making of goods in tenement houses should be hampered in every way that the law will permit.

The one promptly available remedy is adequate rapid transit. More bridges, more tunnels and more facilities for getting over the one and through the other will enable those people who are obliged to work in the Borough of Manhattan to get out of that borough into homes of their own. There has never been a time when the transportation facilities provided have not been overtaxed, showing a desire on the part of the people to get out of the congested sections far in excess of the facilities given them so to do.

C.—Statement submitted by Mr. Morris D. Waldman, Secretary of the United Hebrew Charities.

A representative of the Junior Order of Mechanics quoted from the 27th annual report of the United Hebrew Charities, in which increasing Jewish immigration was deplored because it increased the number of Jewish dependents in the city. Mr. Waldman stated that, though not connected with the organization at that time and not familiar with conditions confronting it, he believed that the strong language in which the report was couched was prompted by the desire to secure an increase in contributions. But, be that as it may, during the year in which the report was published, the applicants at the United Hebrew Charities numbered over 10,000, whereas during the current year just ending, the applicants numbered 8,000 (the actual figures are over 11,000 for 1901 and 9,000 for this year), in spite of the fact that the Jewish population of the city has doubled since that time, showing that the increase in the number of Jewish immigrants in The City of New York did not increase dependency among the Jews.

Mr. Waldman called the attention of the Commission to sundry facts that were submitted last spring to the House Committee on Immigration at Washington by a committee of the American Jewish Committee, showing that, though illiteracy is more prevalent among Italian and Jewish immigrants and less prevalent among British and French immigrants, it was characteristic, in an inverse proportion, of prostitutes and procurers arriving at our shores.

He took occasion to warn the Commission against accepting general statements as facts, illustrating the danger in the following way:

"(a). A sweeping statement was made by one of the speakers to the effect that immigrants were filling our prisons and penitentiaries. Mr. Waldman again quoted from the testimony of the American Jewish Committee at Washington, showing that, though the alien population in this country of males 20 years of age and over, according to the last census reports, was 20 per cent. of the entire male population of the same ages, the number of male aliens in the prisons over 20 years of age was less than 22 per cent.

"(b). In reply to the general complaint that immigrants were forcing native workmen out of employment, he quoted his personal experience throughout the country, showing the demand for labor in the interior far in excess of the supply. He called attention of the Commission also to the fact that labor was so scarce that one state, South Carolina, of its own accord and at its own expense imported about 500 immigrants to its territory.

"(c). In reply to the complaint that the immigrants in accepting lower wages were reducing the standard of living, he stated that he saw a large contingent of these immigrants gather before the office of the Commissioner of Labor and Immigration in South Carolina and complain bitterly that the wages offered to them were far below those which they had received in their native country. Further, he quoted from the testimony of the American Jewish Committee, showing that in the garment industries, which were practically entirely controlled and engaged in by our immigrant population, the per capita wage, both among males and females, was considerably in excess of the average wage in all industries."

Mr. Waldman also expressed it as his belief that though there is congestion in this city, it is not in excess of what it was ten years ago; that figures of school registration which he had secured from the Board of Education about a year ago showed the population in the most congested quarter of the city, namely, below Houston street and East of the Bowery, to be little higher than registration at the time of the consolidation of the Boroughs into the City of New York in spite of the tremendous increase of population. He also called the attention of the Commission to the general distribution of Jewish population all over the greater city.

His opinions that congestion among Jews on the lower East Side was caused by economic conditions; that most of the people, directly or indirectly, were dependent

upon the garment industries, and that these were situated within walking distance. So long as the wages were low, making the carfare and lunch money a serious item in the worker's weekly budget, and so long as the working hours were many, this condition of overcrowding would continue.

He also stated that insufficient transportation facilities were a serious factor in preventing a larger distribution of the population, and that though there was direct relation between immigration and increase in population, he could see very little relation between immigration and congestion.

Nationalities in Congested Areas and Blocks.

The data regarding nationalities in congested areas and blocks has been compiled by Dr. Walter Laidlaw, Secretary of the Federation of Churches and Christian Organizations. The data regarding nationality in 1910 is not available, the last being for 1905.

Irish and German, the leading foreign peoples of Manhattan in 1900, have been displaced by Russians and Italians.

All four of these nationalities were in 100,000 class of 1905, and the Italians were the only group of the four having below 100,000 in the Borough of Manhattan in 1900.

The following is the order of foreign nationalities in Manhattan in 1905:

Russian, practically 200,000; Italian, 155,000; Irish, 125,000; German, 115,000; Austrian, 80,000; Hungarian, 35,000; Poles, 25,000; Roumanian, 21,000; Bohemian, 10,000, with 33 other nationalities under 10,000.

The 122 blocks in Manhattan having in 1905 a density of over 750 people per acre have been especially counted, 65.7 per cent. of the 312,642 people in 1905 in blocks of 750 per acre were foreign-born, and only 34.25 per cent. American-born. The foreign-born in Manhattan numbered, in 1905, 890,142, and 205,151 of them, or over 23 per cent., were domiciled in blocks having above 750 people per acre, while less than 9 per cent. of American-born were living under like conditions.

Of the population in blocks of over 750 density Russian-born people supplied 30.15 per cent. and American only 34.25 per cent., while the Austrians supplied 12.65 per cent.; Italians, 9.60 per cent.; Poles, 4.21 per cent.; Roumanians, 3.24 per cent., and Hungarians, 2.78 per cent. South of 14th street, in 1905, there were 155,828 Russian-born people. Of these, 93,802, or 62 per cent., were living in blocks having over 750 people per acre.

Of the Poles and Austrians in Manhattan in 1905, over 50 per cent. were living in blocks of over 750 per acre. Between 45 per cent. and 50 per cent. of the Russians in Manhattan blocks, 34 per cent. of the Chinese, over 25 per cent. of the Hungarians, and less than 25 per cent. of the Italians were living in similar blocks.

The foreign-born in Manhattan grew from 789,342 in 1900 to 890,142 in 1905, an increase of 100,800 out of the 262,287 increase of Manhattan in those five years.

The population of Manhattan was 47.7 foreign-born in 1900, and, despite the surplus of birth-rate over death-rate, was still 42.2 per cent. foreign-born in 1905.

The old Thirty-first Assembly District, running from 110th to 134th street and between Park and 8th avenues, was 3 per cent. more foreign in 1905 than in 1900.

The Borough of The Bronx had 30.7 per cent. foreign-born in 1900, and 29.5 per cent. in 1905.

The old Thirty-fifth Assembly District had proportionately more foreign-born in 1905 than in 1900, while the foreign-born population of the old Thirty-fourth Assembly District fell off almost 3 per cent.

South of 14th street, on the East Side, the native-born population, from 1900 to 1905, increased only from 223,039 to 231,103, or in all 8,064 persons—less than 4 per cent., while the foreign-born increased 61,517 persons or very nearly 20 per cent. There were, therefore, many districts where the number of native-born in 1905 was actually less than in 1900.

Italian Investigation.

Block Bounded by Mott, Prince, Elizabeth and E. Houston Sts.—367 Cases.

Nationality and Provinces.

	Cases.
Italian	367
Province—	
Apulian	16
Basilicata	23
Calabria	2
Latium	3
Lombardy	1
Venice	1
Miscellaneous	16
Campania	25
Sicily	280

	Age.	Man.	Woman.
Number under 30 years of age.....		14	27
Number under 40 years of age.....		147	199
Number under 50 years of age.....		151	108
Number over 50 years of age.....		48	30
		364	364

Rent Per Room Per Month.

Number of families paying \$3.50 to \$4.00 per room per month.....	26
Number of families paying \$4.01 to \$4.50 per room per month.....	16
Number of families paying \$4.51 to \$5.00 per room per month.....	75
Number of families paying \$5.01 to \$5.50 per room per month.....	70
Number of families paying \$5.51 to \$6.00 per room per month.....	166
Number of families paying \$6.01 to \$6.50 per room per month.....	10
Number of families paying \$6.51 to \$7.00 per room per month.....	1
Number of families paying \$7.01 to \$7.50 per room per month.....	1

Earnings.

	Man.	Woman.	Children.	Family.	Total Family Income.
Under 200	188	8	..	3
200 to 250	10	5	..	1
251 to 300	8	26	17	6	1
301 to 350	7	3	17	2	1
351 to 400	14	4	6	1	1
401 to 450	15	11	51	6	2
501 to 550	50	..	36	21	16
551 to 600	31	..	12	7	10
601 to 650	51	..	7	23	21
651 to 700	5	22	19
701 to 750	45	28	23
751 to 800	24	35	36
801 to 850	1	11	24
851 to 900	4	28	21
901 to 950	28	21	27
951 to 1,000	1	8	11
1,000 to 1,100	17	43	48
1,100 to 1,200	25	22
1,200 to 1,300	4	14	17
1,300 to 1,400	12	14
1,400 to 1,500	10	11
1,500 to 1,600	3	5	5
1,600 to 1,700	5	5
1,700 to 1,800	4	4
1,800 to 1,900	5	5
Over 1,900	12	12

Per Cent. Spent on Rent.

Percentage of Man's Earnings.

Number of men spending under 10 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	4
Number of men spending 10 to 15 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	7
Number of men spending 15 to 20 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	25
Number of men spending 20 to 25 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	55
Number of men spending 25 to 30 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	70
Number of men spending 30 to 35 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	60
Number of men spending 35 to 40 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	54
Number of men spending 40 to 45 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	28
Number of men spending 45 to 50 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	14

Number of men spending 50 to 55 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	7
Number of men spending 55 to 60 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	3
Number of men spending 60 to 65 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	3
Number of men spending 65 to 70 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	3
Number of men spending 70 to 75 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	3
Number of men spending 75 to 80 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	3
Number of men spending 80 to 85 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	1
Number of men spending 85 to 90 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	0
Number of men spending over 90 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	1

Percentage of Families' Earnings.

Number of families spending under 10 per cent. of total income for rent.....	20
Number of families spending 10 to 15 per cent. of total income for rent.....	47
Number of families spending 15 to 20 per cent. of total income for rent.....	91
Number of families spending 20 to 25 per cent. of total income for rent.....	97
Number of families spending 25 to 30 per cent. of total income for rent.....	50
Number of families spending 30 to 35 per cent. of total income for rent.....	30
Number of families spending 35 to 40 per cent. of total income for rent.....	13
Number of families spending 40 to 45 per cent. of total income for rent.....	6
Number of families spending 45 to 50 per cent. of total income for rent.....	5
Number of families spending 50 to 55 per cent. of total income for rent.....	0
Number of families spending 55 to 60 per cent. of total income for rent.....	1
Number of families spending 60 to 65 per cent. of total income for rent.....	1
Number of families spending 65 to 90 per cent. of total income for rent.....	0
Number of families spending over 90 per cent. of total income for rent.....	2

Crowding of Rooms.

Number of rooms in which 2 adults sleep.....	319
Number of rooms in which 2½ adults sleep.....	45
Number of rooms in which 3 adults sleep.....	23
Number of rooms in which 3½ adults sleep.....	10
Number of rooms in which 4 adults sleep.....	8

Per Cent. Spent on Rent.

Percentage of Man's Earnings.

Number of men spending under 10 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	0
Number of men spending 10 to 15 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	7
Number of men spending 15 to 20 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	24
Number of men spending 20 to 25 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	78
Number of men spending 25 to 30 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	53
Number of men spending 30 to 35 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	6
Number of men spending 35 to 40 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	4
Number of men spending 40 to 45 per cent. of their earnings for rent.....	2

Number of families spending under 10 per cent. of their total income for rent...	0
Number of families spending 10 to 15 per cent. of their total income for rent....	15
Number of families spending 15 to 20 per cent. of their total income for rent....	32
Number of families spending 20 to 25 per cent. of their total income for rent....	81
Number of families spending 25 to 30 per cent. of their total income for rent....	36
Number of families spending 30 to 35 per cent. of their total income for rent....	8

172

Crowding of Rooms.

Number of rooms in which 2 adults sleep.....	71
Number of rooms in which 2½ adults sleep.....	47
Number of rooms in which 3 adults sleep.....	61
Number of rooms in which 3½ adults sleep.....	28
Number of rooms in which 4 adults sleep.....	42
Number of rooms in which 4½ adults sleep.....	5
Number of rooms in which 5 adults sleep.....	1

Time in the United States.

	Men.	Women.
Number who have lived in United States 1 year or less.....	26	1
Number who have lived in United States from 1 to 3 years.....	33	18
Number who have lived in United States from 3 to 5 years.....	37	38
Number who have lived in United States from 5 to 8 years.....	22	53
Number who have lived in United States from 8 to 10 years.....	25	21
Number who have lived in United States from 10 to 15 years.....	15	21
Number who have lived in United States from 15 to 20 years.....	3	9
Number who have lived in United States over 20 years.....		1

Literacy of Family.

Number of men who cannot speak English.....	148
Number of women who cannot speak English.....	158
Not given: Men, 22; women, 23.	

Size of Family.

Number of families consisting of 2 persons.....	1
Number of families consisting of 3 persons.....	9
Number of families consisting of 4 persons.....	41
Number of families consisting of 5 persons.....	52
Number of families consisting of 6 persons.....	31
Number of families consisting of 7 persons.....	13
Number of families consisting of 8 persons.....	9
Number of families consisting of 9 persons.....	4
Number of families consisting of 10 persons.....	1
Number of families consisting of 11 persons.....	1

Occupation of Men.

Laborers	128
Barbers	10
Pedlers	8
Drivers	5
Store	3
Bootblacks	2
Shoemakers	1
Builders	1

Occupation of Women.

Sewing	2
Bakery	1

Occupation of Children.

Shop-work	69
Sewing	1

Number of Children Working.

Number of families having 1 child.....	35
Number of families having 2 children.....	14
Number of families having 3 children.....	8

Time in the United States.

	Men.	Women.
Number who have lived in the United States 1 year, or less.....	0	0
Number who have lived in the United States 1 to 3 years.....	2	3
Number who have lived in the United States 3 to 5 years.....	18	19
Number who have lived in the United States 5 to 8 years.....	65	65
Number who have lived in the United States 8 to 10 years.....	120	123
Number who have lived in the United States 10 to 15 years.....	107	108
Number who have lived in the United States 15 to 20 years.....	41	40
Number who have lived in the United States over 20 years.....	9	9

Literacy of Family.

Number of men who cannot read or write English.....	291
Number of women who cannot read or write English.....	107

Size of Family.

Number of families consisting of 2 persons.....	31
Number of families consisting of 3 persons.....	71
Number of families consisting of 4 persons.....	124
Number of families consisting of 5 persons.....	86

	Size of Family.	
Number of families consisting of 6 persons.....	35	
Number of families consisting of 7 persons.....	9	
Number of families consisting of 8 persons.....	9	
Number of families consisting of 9 persons.....	0	
Number of families consisting of 10 persons.....	1	
Number of families consisting of 11 persons.....	1	

Occupation of Men.

Banker	1
Barbers	17
Bootblacks	6
Blacksmiths	12
Builder (Bricklayer)	29
Cafe	8
Carpenter	9
Doctor	1
Factory	6
Hod-Carrier	42
Importer	1
Laborer	57
Lawyer	1
Mechanic	1
Miner	1
Musician	4
Operator	2
Plumber	1
Painter	13
Pedler (Stand)	28
Shoemaker	47
Store	10
Tailor	48
Teacher	6
Watchman	1
Not working	19

Occupation of Women.

No occupation	125
Finisher	11
Dressmaker	231

Occupation of Children.

Bootblack	3
Butcher	5
Carpenter	2
Clerk	5
Conductor	1
Detective	1
Dressmaker	1
Doctor	25
Factory	56
Laborer	5
Mechanic	2
Musician	1
Printer	4
Store	1
Tailor	1
Newsboy or Girl.....	2
Finisher	27
Barber	16
Painter	1

Number of Families Having Children Working.

Number of families 1 child working.....	37
Number of families 2 children working.....	24
Number of families 3 children working.....	11
Number of families 4 children working.....	3
Number of families 5 children working.....	0
Number of families 6 children working.....	1

Scattered Cases, February to March, 1908.

174 Cases.

Number of families living on first floor.....	33
Number of families living on second floor	47
Number of families living on third floor	55
Number of families living on fourth floor	13
Number of families living on fifth floor	7
Number of families living in basement.....	9
	<hr/> 164

Nationality and Province.

Italian	174
Province—	
Campania	70
Basilicata	61
Calabria	11
Abruzzo	9
Sicily	6
Latium	1
	<hr/> 158

Age.

	Man.	Woman.
Number under 30 years of age.....	46	60
Number under 40 years of age.....	67	63
Number under 50 years of age.....	38	36
Number over 50 years of age.....	20	12
	<hr/> 171	<hr/> 171

Rent Per Room Per Month.

Number of families paying \$2.50 to \$3.00 per room per month.....	2
Number of families paying \$3.00 to \$3.50 per room per month.....	26
Number of families paying \$3.50 to \$4.00 per room per month.....	36
Number of families paying \$4.00 to \$4.50 per room per month.....	46
Number of families paying \$4.50 to \$5.00 per room per month.....	41
Number of families paying \$5.00 to \$5.50 per room per month.....	11
Number of families paying \$5.50 to \$6.00 per room per month.....	3
Number of families paying \$6.00 to \$6.50 per room per month.....	6
Number of families paying \$6.50 to \$7.00 per room per month.....	2
Number of families paying \$7.00 to \$7.50 per room per month.....	1

Number of Rooms Per Flat.

1 room apartment.....	32
2 room apartment.....	60
3 room apartment.....	51
4 room apartment.....	26
5 room apartment.....	5

Earnings.

	Man.	Woman.	Children.	Family.	Total Family Income.
Under 200
200 to 250	1	14
250 to 300	32	5	..
300 to 350	18	26	9
350 to 400	31	..	4	28	19
400 to 450	42	1	1	44	29
450 to 500	38	1	..	33	35
500 to 550	14	16	49
550 to 600	23	7	16
600 to 650	16	2	6
650 to 700	2	2	2
700 to 750	1	3	2
750 to 800	2	4	3
800 to 850	2	2
850 to 900	1	1	1
900 to 950
950

A. Money Value of Immigrants.

The actual amount of money brought by immigrants is not known, since many of them send money ahead through bankers, many have money sent to them by their friends, and some bring much more than they show at the port of arrival. Mr. Hall assumes that an average immigration of 600,000 per year for a series of years, 200,000 came as prepaid, i. e., had their passage prepaid. Mr. Hall states:

"The Italians in New York City are said to hold \$60,000,000 worth of property, of which \$15,000,000 is in savings bank deposits and those in St. Louis, San Francisco, Boston and Chicago are reported to have even larger amounts. These figures give some idea of the additions to the wealth of the community made by the new comers to our shores; and constitute a hopeful sign for the future. The sacrifice of comfort, health and decency involved in the production of this wealth, however, should never be forgotten, and the effects of such a sacrifice must be paid for by the community in many forms."

B. Occupations of Immigrants.

"Thus the percentages of immigrants having no occupation, including women and children, since 1894, has been as follows:

1895.....	36
1896.....	36
1897.....	39
1898.....	39.4
1899.....	35.1
1900.....	30.1
1901.....	30.5
1902.....	23.4
1903.....	23.3
1904.....	26.4
1905.....	32.6

"The percentage of immigrants who were farm laborers, laborers or servants for the same years was as follows:

1895.....	42
1896.....	46
1897.....	40
1898.....	40.3
1899.....	47.3
1900.....	53
1901.....	53.1
1902.....	60.6
1903.....	57.3
1904.....	49.4
1905.....	54.1

"Combining the two foregoing tables, it appears that the proportion of immigrants practically without knowledge of a trade or means of livelihood has remained nearly constant for the last decade, and is about four-fifths of the total arrivals."

PROPOSED LEGISLATION.

The raising of the present tax of \$2 to \$10.50 or \$100 which would doubtless considerably diminish immigration. This would bear heavily on the man with a family and there must be some exception of wives and children.

The money test would tend to restrict immigration, but this would be to some extent evaded.

B. Physical Test.

The present laws exclude all who are mentally diseased in such a way as to be a burden on the community, i. e., the insane idiots and persons who have been insane within a few years and on the physical side those with dangerous or loathsome or contagious diseases. Persons of poor physique are with few exceptions most likely to become a burden upon the community.

"It has been suggested that pending any radical action by Congress, or any construction by the department of section 10, which would accomplish the same purpose, there should be a rule requiring the commissioner of immigration in charge at a port where a physically defective alien is landed, to notify in writing the officials of the municipality in which such alien intends to reside, that he has been admitted, giving sufficient information to identify him. If, subsequently, he becomes a public charge the chain of evidence necessary to secure his deportation will then be complete."

C. Illiteracy Test.

This has been the favorite method advocated to restrict immigration.

In 1895 Senator Lodge introduced a bill prepared by the Immigration Restriction League known as the "Lodge Bill," which added to the excluded classes "All persons between fourteen and sixty years of age who cannot both read and write the English language or some other language." This was amended in 1896 by a bill excluding illiterates over fourteen years of age with an exemption in the case of aged parents or grandparents of admissible or resident immigrants. This was further amended by requiring that immigrants should read or write English or the language of their native or resident country, and vetoed by President Cleveland. It has been objected that this would exclude many sturdy though ignorant immigrants and keep out domestic servants.

D. Consular Inspection.

This plan contemplates the examination of each alien at the port of embarkation by American consular officers, and may be either voluntary or involuntary on the part of the alien. This general plan has been advocated since 1885, and this was the most popular plan for further restriction until the educational test was brought forward. An alien is to file a passport of recent date from his native government and swear to an application stating the reason of his desire to migrate, his trade, age, state of health and statement of property. The consul is to confirm these statements by investigating as far as possible and to hold a duly advertised public hearing on the application. If the applicant were found to be a fit subject for citizenship in the United States the consul should, on payment by the applicant of \$20, issue to him a permit enabling him to sail within four months; if found unfit, the permit was to be refused.

Mr. Hall mentions seven objections to the system of consular inspection.

(1) It would necessitate a large increase in the consular force and consequent expense. Not very long ago there were only three consuls of the United States in the whole of Russia. Considering its size, it is apparent that it would be absolutely impossible to supervise emigration from such a country, or indeed from any European country, without a very large increase in the consular force, and that unless the consuls were widely scattered none of them would be near enough the emigrant's place of residence to have any special facility in obtaining information about him.

(2) The consuls themselves would not have, in addition to their other duties, the time to examine the large number embarking at once, and the result would practically be that the inspection would be done by clerks, probably natives, who would generally sympathize with the emigrants and in any case, it would be less efficient and responsible and more open to corruption than that of inspectors at the ports of the United States.

(3) If the certificate is to be conclusive, the elaborate machinery for inspection at American ports must still be maintained in order to detect and deport those arriving without proper certificates; yet these will be so few in comparison with the whole number that most of this enormously expensive plant would be rendered useless.

(4) Consular inspection as such does not add to the excluded classes, and therefore does not meet the most serious defect in the present law, namely, its failure to exclude paupers, diseased persons and objectionable aliens.

(5) It does not draw any line of exclusion more definite than the existing law, but, as above suggested, it vests an enormous discretion in officials far removed from oversight and control.

(6) Consular inspection must either be public or secret. The foreign governments could not tolerate the introduction of secret extra-territorial courts such as these consular offices would be. But if consular inspection were public the foreign governments would use every effort to keep at home strong and healthy citizens fit for military service, and to assist in the emigration of those members of the community whom they desired to be rid of.

(7) It is a fallacious assumption that consuls are in most cases any better able to ascertain the truth of the immigrant's statements than inspectors at our ports.

E. Other Methods.

- (1) Total suspension for one year or a stated period.
- (2) Exclusion of certain races
- (3) Limitation of numbers.
- (4) Additions to the excluded classes.
 - (a) Socialists.
 - (b) All immigrants or at least all manual laborers who do not at once declare their intention to become citizens.
 - (c) Persons of bad character.
 - (d) Birds of passage.

(e) Persons without families.

(f) Aged persons.

Other suggestions are the mental test (as opposed to merely a literary test) extending the period of deportation.

G. *Administrative Amendments.*

Co-operation of all officials.

Limiting the privilege of assisting immigrants.

Bonding persons likely to become public charges.

Other Matters—The present inspection of immigrants is often very superficial owing to the small amount of time available. More inspectors and more accommodations for inspection also are needed to perfect the work of examination, and to test the truthfulness of statements as to occupation, destination and other matters. A more thorough inspection would undoubtedly result in the discovery of more frauds practiced by immigrants similar to those in 1902-3, when it was found that large numbers of addresses in New York City of friends or relatives, to whom the aliens represented they were going, were entirely fictitious. The manifests should be altered so as to show the actual amount of money brought. It is also desirable that steps be taken to obtain statistics of emigration. Landing certificates should be given to immigrants, and the production of them required for naturalization. The sale of tickets by unauthorized agents of steamship companies should be forbidden and thus the whole matter be made subject to the United States regulations.

OTHER PROPOSED REMEDIES FOR IMMIGRATION EVILS.

A. *Distribution of Immigrants.*

To scatter city slum populations and recent arrivals, in the face of the present movement toward the cities, on a scale large enough to be at all effective, would require vast sums of money. Moreover, a distribution which simply moves large numbers to other localities, where they tend to form the same sort of communities, is not really a solution of the problem, a problem which is in substance to change them into thrifty and intelligent settlers, whose homes shall be the centres of family life and civic interest. To be really effective, thousands of families should be removed from the slums of New York, Chicago, Boston and other cities every year, and the incoming of two or three times as many families of newer immigrants of the same standard of living should be prevented. Although there is no doubt that distribution is a most important and necessary work, yet the success thus far attained is not very encouraging. The Hebrew Industrial Removal Office in New York City sent out 5,525 immigrants settled in the City. During the first three years of its existence the society sent out a total of 10,563 persons, and it is evident that its work must be increased manyfold to cope with the present situation. The Italian societies in New York and Boston have also interested themselves in the matter of colonizing immigrants, and the governments of Austria and Italy have lent a helping hand to these movements; but, up to the present time, but little has been accomplished.

The principal difficulty with the distribution scheme is that, in so far as it involves the immigrant taking up agricultural pursuits, most of our modern immigrants are not fitted for such work. Long residence in the ghettos of Europe has unfitted most of the Jews to be independent farmers. So with the Syrians and Armenians, who, like most of our recent immigrants, are too ignorant to make a success of farming life.

Furthermore, in order to effect a satisfactory distribution, immigrants must be needed and desired by the district into which it is proposed to send them. The United States Immigration Investigation Commission in 1895 and the Immigration Restriction League in 1904 made inquiries of the officials of the several states as to their desires and needs in the matter. The results of these two sets of inquiries were substantially the same and disclosed the fact that the only demand on the part of any locality for recent immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe, was for Italian farmers with families and with capital, intending permanent settlement. The races chiefly desired were native Americans, British, Germans, Scandinavians, French and Swiss. In every case in the recent canvass, the officials objected in the strongest terms to any plan for shipping immigrants from the slums of eastern cities into their respective localities. On the contrary, many of the States prefer immigrants from other sections of the country who have resided in the United States for some time and are familiar with American customs, or else the kindred races of Northern Europe with whom we are already familiar.

In the South, industrial competition, combined with the inefficiency of the negro and the movement toward the cities above noted, has created a certain demand for foreign labor for the fields. Thus we read that the Italian ambassador has recently been attempting to establish Italian immigration centres in Texas, Louisiana and

Georgia, with a view to inducing the agricultural element of Italy to settle the vexing problem of southern working fields. It is significantly stated in the same despatch that the movement will be financed entirely by New York capital.

(The statement of actual distribution of immigration shows how little has been accomplished by this to date.)

Protective and Assimilating Movements.

Organizations such as the Hebrew, German, Italian and other societies for looking after their fellow countrymen have been organized in many cities.

Ethical Aspects of Regulation.

We can sympathize with Prof. Mayo-Smith when he says:

"The control of immigration must be free from the base cry of 'America for the Americans,' and from any narrow spirit of trade unionism, or of a selfish desire to monopolize the labor market. It must find its justification in the needs of the community, and in the necessity of selecting those elements which will contribute to the harmonious development of our civilization." (Conclusion of digest of Mr. Hall's Book, Immigration.)

Statements and arguments of the National Liberal Immigration League, 150 Nassau street, New York:

The division of information in the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization. "The maintenance of this national distribution is of first importance, for it is true that the problem of immigration is nothing more nor less than the problem of distribution. If properly encouraged the distribution bureau will equalize the tide of immigration and help the unemployed, diminishing congestion here, and providing desirable labor there, all over the land; and it were very regrettable to have it nipped in the bud.

EDWARD LAUTERBACH, President."

The League summarizes the Hayes bill explained later as follows:

Many bills providing for the regulation of immigration have been introduced in Congress during the present session (1909 and 1910). Restriction is the avowed objection of several of them, while the actual purpose of nearly all is not merely to check, but to stop immigration. First in order among these is the Hayes Bill, to whose drastic and un-American measures we call your attention:

1. \$10 Head Tax, instead of \$4. This has no conceivable object but that of checking immigration. The head tax was originally imposed to defray the expenses of the immigration service—its only legitimate purpose. The \$2 head tax in force July, 1907, not only accomplished this, but yielded a considerable surplus to the United States Treasury.

2. Educational Test.—For the great constructive works of the nation and for the lower forms of manual labor we need a large number of immigrants. Ability to read and write, is a reasonable qualification for citizenship, but it does not increase a man's fitness for manual labor. Neither is it a guarantee of morals, the police reports of New York showing that only 2.6 per cent. of those arrested are unable to read and write. The immigrants, illiterate as well as those who can read and write, appreciate an education so highly that the native white of foreign parentage show but 1.6 per cent. of illiteracy, as against the 5.7 per cent. of children of native whites. We need fear nothing from their ignorance. The thing above all others that we seriously need is a means of keeping out of our country the bomb-throwing anarchist, the black-mailer, the counterfeiter, the forger, who can read and write too well.

3. Exclusion of aliens who do not possess \$25.—Any financial test is un-American. Had such a restriction been applied in the past, our nation would not now be among the greatest of the earth. The financial test would keep away thousands of deserving men whose labor is needed for digging our subways, working our mines, and building our railroads, and women who are needed for domestic service. But it can always be met with ease by the really undesirable immigrant—the criminal.

4. Exclusion of aliens who do not bring a certificate of good character.—This can only tend to make us the dupes of extortionate, petty officials of certain countries. Through bribery, criminals could often secure certificates more easily than honest laborers. Obviously, this provision would defeat its own end with a vengeance.

5. Repeal of sections 26 and 40 of the Immigration Act now in force.

Section 26 provides for the admission under bond of certain aliens otherwise liable to deportation because they seem likely to become public charges. Section 40 provides for the establishment of a Division of Information in the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization, "to promote a beneficial distribution of aliens * * * among the several states and territories desiring immigration. Both these sections have proved of benefit to the country.

The condemnation of the Federal Government's effort to distribute immigrants

and unemployed, is in line with the policy that persecuted the Irish and Germans, instead of welcoming them by stretching out a helping hand.

6. Exclusion of girls under twenty unaccompanied by parents.—The enactment of such a provision would debar many worthy young women needed for domestic service. It could not possibly prevent the entrance into the United States of young women coming for immoral purposes.

7. Requirement that within one year after the enactment of the bill every unnaturalized alien in the United States take out a certificate of residence containing description and photograph of holder, on penalty of being deported.—This measure is as superfluous as it is degrading, resembling as it does the ticketing and photographing of a criminal. It is a thing unknown even to the despotisms of Europe, and is contrary to the spirit of American democracy and equality.

It summarizes and condemns the above provisions of the Hayes Bill to say that they would close our door to many thousands of honest, simple, law-abiding immigrants, such as have helped to build up our country; while there is not a single measure in this whole bill, which prevents the entrance of the criminal, who can afford to pay any tax, make show of any amount of money, exhibit any certificate, and pass any educational test.

The League endorses the following statement of principles by former President Charles W. Eliot:

"I beg leave to invite your attention to the following statement of the principles which should govern National Legislation on Immigration:

"First. Our country needs the labor of every honest and healthy 'immigrant' who has intelligence and enterprise to come here.

"Second. Existing legislation is sufficient to exclude undesirable immigrants.

"Third. Educational tests should not be applied at the moment of entrance to the United States, but at the moment of naturalization.

"Fourth. The proper educational test is capacity to read in English or in the native tongue, not the Bible or the Constitution of the United States, but newspaper items in some recent English or native newspaper which the candidates cannot have seen.

"Fifth. The attitude of Congress and the laws should be hospitable and not repellent. The only questions which are appropriate are: Is he healthy, strong and desirous of earning a good living? Many illiterates have common sense, sound bodies, and good characters. Indeed it is not clear that education increases much the amount of common sense which nature gave the individual. An educational test is appropriate at the time when the foreigner proposes to become a voting citizen. He ought then to know how to read. Very truly yours,

CHARLES W. ELIOT."

The motto of the League is, "A stream that is dangerous when unchecked will prove a blessing to the land when well directed."

To secure such distribution they advocate an appeal on behalf of free transportation.

While our congested eastern cities are overrun with thousands of sturdy laborers without employment and often without bread, a need for these same laborers is felt in other parts. There is a Bureau of Information in Washington which can furnish to almost every one of the unemployed the names of several firms where their work is needed. Were they to go to such localities it would be a benefit both to them and to their employers, but they lack the means to pay the traveling expenses, and generally are suspicious of any offers of employers to advance these expenses on their wages.

If the Bureau of Information could give to unemployed laborers transportation to where their labor is in demand, thousands of them would be saved from want, and they would, on the other hand, benefit the country through their labor.

Immigrants arriving here could also be directed where they have relatives or where their labor is needed, but they cannot afford to pay the cost of transportation to those localities.

Free transportation will greatly contribute to the solution of this problem. The Argentine Republic furnishes immigrants with one week's hospitality and with free railroad transportation to any part of that country. Other South American governments offer similar inducements. What such republics, with their scanty means, are doing our country, the wealthiest in the world, can certainly accomplish. The burden which such a provision would entail upon the Federal treasury would be more than compensated by the benefit which it would bring about.

NATIONAL LIBERAL IMMIGRATION LEAGUE.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON LABOR AND WAGES OF THE NEW
YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION,
MR. JOHN J. FLYNN, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee have held seven meetings separately or in conjunction with the Committee on Factories. They have examined more than thirty persons and studied numerous reports on the subject of the city, the State and the Federal Government as well as of private organizations.

The low wages paid in the city and the unhealthy conditions in factories and workshops have been emphasized in several of the meetings of the Committee as well as at the general hearing of the Commission, as important causes of congestion and room overcrowding in the city.

The Committee beg therefore to make the following recommendations and to ask that the Committee on Legislation be requested to prepare bills embodying these recommendations if necessary.

A DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF LABOR FOR NEW YORK CITY.

The preponderance of factories of the State in New York City indicates the necessity of having a Deputy Commissioner of Labor for New York City, who shall devote all his time to the direction and supervision of the Department's work in the city.

MORE FACTORY INSPECTORS AND APPROPRIATE LEGISLATION TO ENABLE THE STATE DEPARTMENT TO ENFORCE ITS REGULATIONS.

The present number of factory inspectors in the city is inadequate, the permanent force being only 35, while during the winter inspectors from up-State are brought down, making the average for the city 40. During the year ended September 30, 1909, 28,952 visits of inspection of factories were made in New York City, only 838 more visits than the total number of factories in the city. Many of these factories should be visited at least every quarter, and some monthly. It is therefore suggested that the number of factory inspectors to be permanently located in New York City should be increased to an adequate number, and appropriate legislation should be enacted to enable the Department of Labor to enforce its regulations.

AN INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION FOR NEW YORK CITY.

The large number of strikes in the city among organized labor—unskilled and semi-skilled, and the well known fact that many unskilled and unorganized manual laborers in the city do not receive sufficient wages to enable them to maintain themselves, indicate the need for a body to devote its entire time to the labor interests of the city.

An investigation has been made as to the current rate of wages in different trades and occupations in the city, and although these do not cover all trades they are indicative of the rate of wages being paid and the maximum income of laborers in the city for the year. The City Comptroller has furnished figures as to the prevailing rate of wages paid in the following city departments: Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, Department of Bridges, Brooklyn Disciplinary Training Schools, Board of Water Supply, College of the City of New York, Department of Corrections, Department of Public Charities, Department of Docks and Ferries, Department of Education, Finance Department, Fire Department, Health Department, National Guard, Parks, Presidents of the Borough of Manhattan, Borough of The Bronx, Borough of Brooklyn, Borough of Queens, Borough of Richmond, Police Department, Street Cleaning Department, Water Supply, Gas and Electricity, Taxes and Assessment, Courts, County Clerk's Office. In these there were four persons receiving under \$600.00, four receiving \$699.00, 16 receiving from \$700.00 to \$799.00, 16 from \$800.00 to \$899.00, 37 from \$900.00 to \$1,000.00, 358 over \$1,000.00, and the prevailing rate of wages per day were given in 13 cases as \$2.00 to \$2.50, 703 cases \$2.50 to \$3.00 per day, 602 receiving \$3.00 to \$3.50, 755 receiving \$3.50 to \$4.00, 816 4.00 to 4.50, 509, \$4.50 to \$5.00, 43 cases over \$5.00. These figures of course are only indicative of the range of wages paid, and do not take account of the number of days employment during the year, when men are hired only by the day.

The Treasury Department of the United States reports the wages paid in the following departments, Assistant Custodian and Janitor Service, Public Building Service, Sub-Treasury, Internal Revenue Service, and Assay Office, and in these departments there were 148 receiving less than \$600.00 per year, 45 receiving \$600.00 to \$699.00, 158 receiving \$700.00 to \$799.00, 9 receiving \$800.00 to \$899.00, 27 receiving \$900.00 to \$1,000.00, and 71 over \$1,000.00. There were 13 receiving under \$2.00 per day, 42 from \$2.50 to \$3.00 per day, 3 from \$2.50 to \$3.00 per day, 13 from \$3.00 to \$3.50 per day, 3 from \$3.50 to \$4.00 per day, 10 from \$4.00 to \$4.50, 9 from \$4.50 to \$5.00, and 4 over \$5.00 per day.

In the United States Post Office Department, there were 721 clerks, carriers, watchmen, messengers and laborers paid 600.00 per year, 186 messengers, watchmen and laborers receiving \$700.00 per year; 413 clerks and carriers receiving \$800.00 per year, 629 receiving \$900.00 per year, 850 receiving \$1,000 a year, 869 receiving \$1,100.00 per year, 3,183 receiving \$1,200.00. The salaries of the others ranged up to \$3,200.00.

The Metropolitan Street Railway Company report several ranges of wages paid. To 138 watchmen, janitors and flagmen \$547.50 to \$821.25, working 365 days in the year. The weekly wages of stable men and hill boys range from \$8.75 to \$30.00, and of 1,858 conductors the range varies from \$16.10 to \$18.20, while 157 conductors on horse cars receive \$14.00 per week or \$730.00 for the year, and the same wages are paid to 158 drivers on horse cars. The lowest wages paid are 57.7 cents per day to clerks, messenger boys, office boys, etc., 417 laborers are paid from \$1.50 to \$2.75 per day. Plumbers' helpers receive from \$1.00 to \$1.75. The wages of most unskilled workers range from \$1.00 to \$1.75. The wages of most unskilled workers range from \$1.00 to \$2.50 per day.

The Secretary of the International Association of Machinists, Mr. Jas. B. Wilson, states that the annual wages in normal times of the 4,000 members of the union are only \$600.00 to \$800.00 a year, while the non-union machinist get from \$1.50 to \$2.50 per day. Unskilled wage earners get what they can, "catch as catch can," wages running from 19 cents per hour to as low as \$8.00 to \$10 per week, i. e., only \$416.00 to \$520.00 a year at most. In one of the boroughs, laborers in this city's employ are paid \$2.28 a day, and the average time they work is about 245 days a year, so they receive only \$558.60 a year.

In 1905 the average wages of	
339,221 factory wage earners in Manhattan and The Bronx were.....	\$536 76
104,995 factory wage earners in Brooklyn were.....	519 42
14,905 factory wage earners in Queens were.....	566 28
5,595 factory wage earners in Richmond were.....	549 21

While the Committee have not been able to make any statistical investigation of the wages paid unskilled men, especially when unorganized, it is well known that the current wages for their labor is only \$1.50 to \$3.00 per day, with often only temporary employment.

The wages paid women are notably insufficient. Many department stores pay as low as \$5 per week, while the wages of girls in factories will run to a minimum of \$3.50 and from that up to a maximum of \$10 to \$12 per week counting the average for the entire year. In the judgment of the Committee, the living wage should be such as to support the wage-earner and his family not only for the six, eight or ten months of the year during which he has work, but for the twelve months during which the family must live.

The contractor* for the City on the Catskill Aqueduct report the wages of from \$1.25 to \$2 per day. They note, however, that there are two prevailing rate of wages: first, those paid to the natives, and second, those paid to immigrants or aliens, and that the wages paid to immigrants or aliens are almost always lower than those paid to natives, while the tendency is always to reduce the rate of wages for immigrants.

The Committee appreciate the work of the Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration of the State Department of Labor, but feel that in view of the large number of laborers in the city an Industrial Commission should be created for New York City.

From September, 1909, and including May, 1910, the State Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration intervened in 44 strikes or lockouts in New York City. Fifteen of these, one-third, occasioned an aggregate loss of 1,036,039 days, or 3,453½ years (counting 300 working days to a year). This materially offsets New York's increase in population. Counting each day's wage as \$2, this means a total loss for nine months of \$2,072,078, exclusive of employers' losses and the public's loss. Among the trades represented in these strikes were shirtwaist makers, pants makers, pie bakers, steam-fitters and helpers, and butchers.

Some Money Costs of the Shirtwaist Makers' Strike.

Cost to the Union	\$84,877 84
377,778 days' work lost to March 1, 1910, at \$1.25 per day.....	472,222 50
Minimum loss to employers (estimated).....	250,000 00
	<hr/> \$807,100 34

It is clear that some agency is needed to help secure living wages without recourse to strikes. This could be achieved by the creation of an Industrial Commission in the City of New York, and a precedent for the proposed enlargement of jurisdiction over industrial disputes and conditions of labor is to be found in the Industrial Disputes

Investigation Act of Canada, passed in 1907, although the object of that act is to aid in the presence of strikes and lockouts in the case only of mines and industries connected with public utilities.

This Industrial Court should consist of three men to be appointed by the Mayor.

One to be nominated by the employers' association of the City.

One to be nominated by the labor unions of the city.

One to be selected by the Mayor.

The duties of such an Industrial Commission in New York City should be:

(a) To investigate labor conditions and wages paid both skilled and unskilled workers of every class in the city whether organized or not.

(b) To investigate disputes when strikes or lockouts are threatened and after they occur.

These investigations should be made either at the request of workingmen, the employers of labor, or outside parties. The decision of the Industrial Commission should not be binding upon either party to the dispute, but all employers and employees should be urged not to have recourse to lockouts or strikes until the matters in dispute shall have been submitted to the Industrial Commission and at least a week's time given for the investigation, the result of which should be made public. The expense of the Industrial Commission should be paid by the City of New York.

THE CREATION OF A STATE EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.

Although there are several hundred commercial employment offices in New York and a number of charitable agencies for helping people secure employment, they are not rendering the needed service in finding work for even those who can afford to pay the employer's fee for temporary employment, which will last frequently only a few months at longest and often only two or three months, as has been frequently testified before this Commission. At many of the meetings of the Commission poverty, low wages and lack of work have been given as important causes of room overcrowding and congestion. The creation of a Municipal Labor Bureau has been suggested several times, and the Committee on Labor and Wages have secured some information, although complete figures are not available regarding the number of persons for whom employment was secured. In New York City, under the Employment Agency Law of the State, employment agencies are licensed by the Commissioner of Licenses, and at the time this office was created there were 450 employment agencies licensed, but they number nearly double that now. The Commissioner of Licenses also regulates theatrical, commercial, stenographic, shipping and labor agencies and nurses registries.

The following table shows, however, the number of situations secured in one year by some of the leading philanthropic agencies of the city, and the number of men, exclusive of the farm laborers, sent out of the city by employment agencies as shown by the contract labor statements filed. The list is incomplete:

Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Society.....	343
Immigrants' Free Labor Bureau.....	4,071
Industrial Removal Office	3,504
Division of Information (Bureau of Immigration).....	4,142
Joint Application Bureau	421
National Employment Exchange	4,120
Number of men (exclusive of farm laborers sent out of the city by employment agencies)	34,925
Bureau of Labor (Dept. of Agriculture) about.....	5,000

For a number of years German cities have been conducting impartial labor exchanges. The attitude of the trade unions toward this work in the cities has been very interesting. In 1896, the Trade Unions' Congress condemned the impartial public labor exchanges, and about three years later, in 1899, it adopted the resolution that "under present conditions, the establishment of public labor exchanges might be of great advantage to many trades," and recommended organized labor everywhere to take its part in the management of these institutions. Practically all of the important labor exchanges in Germany have committees of management representing employers and employed.

There were in Germany in 1903, 400 public general labor exchanges, 30 employers' exchanges, 2,400 guild exchanges and 1,000 employees' exchanges, and in Stuttgart, with a population of 249,000 in 1905, a total of 62,918 positions were filled in the last year for which the figures are available, while in Munich, with a population of 539,000 in 1905, 60,752 positions were filled. In 1906, 82.9 per cent. of the total number of situations offered were filled, while 95.4 per cent. of the applicants for positions found work.

ATTITUDE OF PUBLIC LABOR EXCHANGES TOWARD LABOR DIFFERENCES.

The question has arisen naturally whether public labor exchanges should interfere with the question of wages and conditions of labor to the extent of refusing to notify situations in which wages and conditions do not conform to the "recognized" or trade union standard, but in Germany no public labor exchange regards the enforcement of any particular condition of labor within its functions, that being attended to by the unions and by the industrial courts; but a striking service rendered by these public labor exchanges, however, is the calling of an employer's attention when he offers an exceptionally low wage to the fact that there is small likelihood that he will get a man at that price. The second question is whether the public exchange in time of open disputes between the two parties should supply men through their agency to take the place of others on strike or lockouts. The exchanges have adopted four different methods of procedure.

(1st) To ignore the dispute altogether and send workmen to the vacancy due to the dispute in exactly the same way as to any other.

(2d) To register vacancies created by the dispute notifying the men and giving formal notice to the individual applicants that there is such a dispute and by placing placards to this effect in the exchange rooms.

(3d) To suspend operations within the range of the dispute during its continuance.

(4th) To make action in each case depend upon the meeting and decision of the industrial court sitting as an arbitration tribunal.

The second, that is, registering vacancies and giving formal notice of strikes, is common, and usually workmen refuse to take the positions made vacant by strikes.

The reasons offered in Germany for the conversion from former hostility to strong, practical support of these labor exchanges is attributed to the following, amongst other reasons:

Experience of the value of successful exchanges in shortening for the individual workmen the average period between one job and the next, and thus for the union the period of unemployed pay.

The failure of purely trade union exchanges to secure general use by employers except in a few trades in which the men were already completely organized.

The establishment by employers of their own exchanges in definite opposition to trade unionism. A public (impartial) exchange is at any rate better from the workmen's point of view than an exchange managed deliberately with the object of maintaining a large reserve of labor or blacklisting individual "agitators."

Some trade unions still maintain their own labor exchanges, however.

In Freiburg the number of situations annually filled is one in every 4.2 of the population, and in Stuttgart one in every 4.4, and in Mannheim one in every 8.2.

On the basis of one for every 4.2 of the population of New York City, at least 1,100,000 positions would be filled annually.

In the German labor exchanges applicants are charged a registration fee of five cents, for which they get a certificate admitting them into the waiting rooms of the exchanges for three months, or until they can get a position.

Unemployment in New York, of course, varies from year to year, and in different trades.

The percentage of idleness in representative unions in New York City was as follows on December of each year, although the length of time of unemployment is unknown:

1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.
17.8	6.7	12.8	34.2	27.7	18

This does not include the non-union, i. e., unorganized trades and labor in the City.

The creation of a Municipal Employment Exchange has been carefully considered by the Committee. After conferences with the State Commission on Employers' Liability and causes of Industrial Accidents, Unemployment and Lack of Farm Labor, which has made at the Committee's suggestion several modifications of its proposed bill establishing public employment offices in several cities of the State, the Committee have decided to endorse the main features of this bill with the understanding that if the proposed bill to establish employment offices as prepared by the State Commission on Unemployment, etc., is not enacted the Commission will recommend the creation of a Municipal Employment Exchange.

There are two reasons unique to large cities and especially New York for such State employment agencies:

1st. *The large number of unskilled wage earners in New York City.* Out of a total this year of approximately 690,000 persons engaged in manufacturing in the industries supervised by the State Department of Labor, only 274,000 were members of labor unions on March 31, 1910. In addition to this number reported by the State Department of Labor, there are at least 500,000 persons engaged in semi-skilled or unskilled occupations in this City.

2d. *The temporary nature of much employment in the City.* The City is itself, of course, the largest employer of labor in the City, and while it has about 85,000 employees on its permanent payroll, it has about 22,000 who are temporarily employed, that is, almost one-fourth are part timers. Approximately half of the unskilled workers of the City are employed for only part of the year, that is, for from six to a maximum of ten or eleven months. There are not, unfortunately, definite statistics on this point. One of the arguments usually given for locating factories in New York City is, however, the large labor market; in other words, the fact that there are more men and women trying to earn a living than jobs to which they may turn, either immediately or for permanent employment. The fact that the City is spending such large sums on charity, both public and private, is partly due to the low wages and unemployment or under-employment in the City. Unemployment or under-employment is not entirely due, however, to lack of employment, but to ignorance on the part of those temporarily unemployed or out of a job of the opportunities for work.

It has been stated that a State or Municipal Employment Bureau would not be able to compete with the scores of private employment agencies. The Committee feels that an efficiently administered Municipal Employment Bureau would be able gradually to drive unscrupulous or inefficient employment agencies out of the field, first, because those seeking employment through it would have more confidence in the honesty of its officials, and this would be especially true of foreigners, seeking work; and second, because the State or Municipal Employment Bureau would be able to render the service free. Most of these private agencies have a number of runners whose salaries and expenses are a large item in the cost of maintenance, while the total number of persons for whom each secures employment is relatively small. If it is found necessary, however, the total number of commercial employment agencies in the City may subsequently be limited to a stated number, the licenses of those whose record has been most unsatisfactory being revoked first.

A NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

The interests of the laborers of the country, skilled and unskilled, organized and unorganized, city and rural, are of such great importance as to require the organization of a National Department of Labor with a Secretary who shall be co-ordinate with the Secretary of Commerce and have a seat in the President's cabinet. At many meetings of the Committee the fact has been emphasized that not only immigrants—whether naturalized or unnaturalized aliens—but American citizens as well, hesitate to go into the country, and when they do go they often find the real wages paid so low that the native American is unable to live upon the wages paid immigrants. It is very important not only that workers should know where there is work, but as well the conditions under which they will be able to work and live. This information can be most unbiasedly and frankly and generally secured by the Federal Government, through the Department of Labor. The duties of such a department should be two-fold:

(a) To give the widest publicity throughout the country to the opportunities for work. This information can best be given through a system of labor bureaus or exchanges in different sections of the country. There should be one in at least every city of 25,000 or over, and in country districts, with an adequate corps of agents and adequate appropriation so that they could keep in touch with the need for labor not only of the city but of the surrounding country, and telegraph to the central office daily demands for laborers as well as laborers available, so that information could be sent daily to each branch office from the central office regarding the labor needs of the country. Complete and general information regarding the labor market is as important to the man who has only his labor to sell as similar information regarding stocks, bonds and grains is to the dealer in these commodities, and it is pre-eminently the function of the Government to furnish this information to the laborers of the country. The representatives of the Division of Information in the Department of Commerce and Labor testified that very often people come to New York City from some other State for a job and are sent back to a job in the same county from which they came.

(b) To give the widest publicity throughout the country to the conditions of labor, wages paid, permanency of employment, etc. This should be done by a corps of investigators in the Department of Labor, who should be continually investigating in cities and country districts alike, the following conditions of labor and living:

(a) Wages paid, whether by the day, week or month, method of payment and frequency in the main skilled and unskilled trades.

(b) Unemployment, whether permanent or the number of weeks work a year and the possibility of securing supplementary work at a time of idleness of stated trades.

(c) Hygienic and sanitary conditions of factories or other places of employment.

(d) Housing Conditions—The rent of two, three, four or five-room apartments within walking distance of work and transit facilities and fares.

(e) Cost of main staples of consumption, flour, meat, vegetables, sugar, etc.

(f) Public school opportunities, length of school term, nature of instruction, physical equipment, etc.

(g) Social and recreational opportunities. The predominating nationalities or races and the general social opportunities, such as playgrounds, parks, theatres, recreation centres, lectures, cheap moving picture shows, etc.

(h) Labor conditions, whether the shops are "closed," open or preferential, and whether strikes are imminent or in progress, with attitude of labor unions toward unorganized labor.

Such an investigation would show the real rate of wages and not merely the nominal wages, so that the laborer may know just what the wages offered really mean.

This investigation should be made immediately public to the City authorities and to the community and an opportunity given them of from one to three months to improve conditions, after which a re-examination should be made, and the conditions then found should be made public through the press of the country.

RECLAMATION OF WASTE LANDS IN THE STATE AND A MORE INTELLIGENT STATE FORESTRY POLICY.

Prof. Liberty H. Bailey, of Cornell University, states: "Practically half of New York State is still in woods and swamps and wastes, but all of it is usable. Grass and timber extend to the tops of the hills."

The State has also about 1,600,000 acres of forests on which it is losing now about \$700,000 annually by the rotting of timber.

While, of course, sweatshop workers of New York City could not be expected to make a success as laborers in forests or reclaiming swamp lands, it is evident that there is ample opportunity for the employment productively of tens of thousands of men on these enterprises and that the State should immediately undertake such a policy of conservation, as well as a stoppage of waste.

PROHIBITION OF TENEMENT MANUFACTURE.

Tenement manufacture is a most important cause and accompaniment, as well as result of congestion of population. There are at present over 13,500 licenses for tenements for manufacture in New York City, and there is practically no tenement manufacture in any other city of the State. At present an entire tenement is licensed for manufacturing and not merely an apartment in a tenement. Evidence has frequently been presented before the Commission that tenement manufacture is going on in apartments in which there are cases of consumption or scarlet fever or diphtheria or measles and that the people are so poor that if their work is taken away from them by the Board of Health because there is some case of contagious disease in the family, they secure some work from their neighbors in an adjoining apartment so as to earn money to pay their rent.

The Committee therefore recommends that tenement house manufacture should be prohibited, since it is impossible practically to prevent the gross evils, physical and moral, of which it is a cause. If it is not constitutional to prohibit absolutely tenement manufacture, they recommend that no tenement manufacture be permitted in any family in which there are children and that the manufacturer be made responsible for this; that is, if any such work is found by the inspectors in families in which there are children, the manufacturer should be punished by a very heavy fine or imprisonment. To make possible the identification of clothing, they recommend that the manufacturers of any product given out to be worked upon in tenements shall have the stamp or name of the manufacturer and his address and that any material found without such identification shall be confiscated by the City through the inspectors of the State Department of Labor or City Department of Health, and sold, the proceeds to go to the Central Fund of the City for the reduction of taxes.

PREVENTION OF ROOM AND FACTORY OVERCROWDING.

Rent is the first item of the family's budget to be cut down when the family receives low wages or when they are economical to the point of penuriousness. By taking in lodgers or by paying too little rent, i. e., having too few rooms, for the decent accommodations of their families, many men are enabled to work for less wages than they should receive and so eventually lower the standard of wages and living in general in the City.

The Committee therefore urges that since the housing standard is the one standard which government can enforce adequate measures be adopted to prevent the present room overcrowding, and they feel that it would be better to pay rent for a few people even than to permit the lowering of wages due and made possible by room overcrowding.

The Committee urge also that legislation should be enacted preventing the overcrowding of factories, which increase the danger of accidents and injures the health of the employees.

Wages Paid in Some Factories in Brooklyn.

Laborers, 18 cents per hour.

Water Tenders, 19 cents per hour.

Boilers, from \$18 to \$25 per week of seven days.

Tallymen and Weighers, 26½ cents per hour.

Longshoremen, 26½ cents per hour.

Ship Trimmers, 41½ cents per hour.

The average pay of Longshoremen, 30 cents per hour, night.

Night work, 45 cents per hour; Sundays, 50 cents per hour.

Railroads:

New York Central, 19¾ cents per hour.

New Haven, 19½ cents per hour.

Erie, 17 cents per hour.

Clyde Line, 30 cents per hour day work; 35 cents night work.

Metropolitan, 25 cents day and night.

Trans-Atlantic, 30 cents day work; 45 cents night work; 60 cents Christmas.

Teamsters—Teamsters in the Sugar House, \$16 per week; 30 cents per hour overtime.

The average pay of day laborers is 17½ cents per hour, 9 hours' work.

Rockmen, \$2.50 per day.

Jute Mills—For women, from \$4.30 to \$6 per week.

Men, from \$6 to \$8 per week.

Longshoremen, from \$8 to \$10 per week.

Boys and girls, about \$2.50 per week.

WAGES MUST BE SUFFICIENT DURING EMPLOYMENT TO SUPPORT THE WORKER DURING THE ENTIRE YEAR.

Mr. W. H. Beveridge, in "Unemployment," states: "Ultimately, therefore, seasonal fluctuation becomes a question not of unemployment, but of wages. From an economic point of view no industry is self-supporting unless it pays wages sufficient to keep men, not only while they are at work, but also while they must stand idle and in reserve. Where in any occupation seasonal fluctuation year after year brings acute distress, that occupation must be judged as one in which wages are too low or ill-spent, because they do not average out to a sufficiency for the slack months as well as for the busy ones. It is from this point of view that the problem must be regarded. It is upon this basis that its treatment must be attempted. (Note page 37.)

Underemployment and Casual Labor.

"By casual employment, therefore, real earnings may be and are driven down to a normal level far below the lowest rate possible in regular industry, however plentiful the competition and unorganized the workmen. This, however, by no means exhausts the peculiar evils of this indirect form of sweating.

"First, such wages as are earned are seldom used to the best advantage. Irregular earnings averaging 25 shillings a week are for ordinary human nature by no means the equivalent of a regular wage of that amount. They are certain to a large extent to be wasted in alterations of extravagance and privation.

"Second, casual employment by demoralizing men largely increases its own evils. Men who find their chance of employment not reasonably increased by good behavior and not destroyed by bad behavior naturally become slack. They work badly; they take the chance of lying in bed now and again since work is always uncertain, but will not be made more uncertain to-morrow by the fact that it had not been sought to-day. It is, however, needless to dwell upon this point. There is gen-

eral agreement that casual employment, as was said of the casual wards, 'acts as a trap to catch the unemployed and turn them into unemployables.'

"Third, casual employment is one of the most potent causes of sweating in the ordinary sense. When the head of the family cannot get enough work, his wife and children are driven out to take what they can get at once. The tendency of low grade women's industries, jam making, sack and tarpaulin work, matchbox making and the like, to get established in districts where labor for men is rife has often been noticed. The effect, of course, is to increase the immobility of the laborer; even if his earnings dwindle away to almost nothing, he is kept from effectively seeking work elsewhere by the occupation of his family. 'Much is now being said of the evils of home work and the low wages paid to women. But these evils in the great majority of cases are effect, not cause. They generally originate in the fact that women, unskilled and unable, even not desiring to work regularly, compete in low grade occupations at the time when their casually employed husbands and fathers are out of work. Reduce the extent of casual labor among men and the supply of out-workers will decrease except at wages and under conditions that are of worth acceptance. It is useless to give by means of a minimum wage to women the means for transforming the woman into the main supporter of the family and so leaving the man free to accept even worse pay or more casual conditions.'

"Fourth, and following directly upon the foregoing, the danger of subsidizing casual employment by public or private relief without improving the conditions of the casual laborer is a very real one. It is not easy to get evidence of the nominal rate of wages in a district being affected injuriously by lax administration of outdoor relief or of charity; probably custom and public sentiment are at all times sufficient to hold in check the theoretical tendency of 'grants in aid of wages' to depress wages directly. But in regard to casual employment, while it is equally difficult to get direct evidence of harm done by charitable subsidies, it is clear that there are no such practical obstacles to the working of economic laws. People who would be aghast at charity or public assistance given to a man in receipt of low wages are quite ready to help an 'unemployed' casual laborer, though if the analysis on page 79 is sound, the ultimate effect must be to lower the average share of work required for subsistence and thus increase the number of casual laborers till a fresh equilibrium is reached at that lower level.

"While, however, the problem of underemployment is in this sense limited and narrower than that of the reserve of labor, it cannot profitably be considered without reference to the wider aspects. It has to be seen as a problem, not of rescuing individuals, but of reforming an industrial method; as a problem, not of grappling with an emergency, but of raising a general level of life. It is in essentials a problem of business organization that of providing a reserve of labor power to meet fluctuations in such a way as not to involve distress. This is done by some industries. In the possibility of doing it for all lies the only hope of a cure for one of the most inveterate of social evils." (Note, pp. 108, 109 and 110.)

W. H. Beveridge: "Unemployment." (pp. 108, 109 and 110.)

CONCLUSION.

Unemployment is not to be identified as a problem of general overpopulation. There is no reason to suppose that the industrial system has lost permanently anything of its former power to absorb the growing supply of labor. There is a reason to suppose that any new stimulus to the expansion of industry is required. There is conclusive reason for holding that no such stimulus can make any lasting impression upon the causes of unemployment.

Unemployment arises because, while the supply of labor grows steadily, the demand for labor, in growing, varies incessantly in volume, distribution and character. This variation, in several of its forms at least, flows directly from the control of production by many competing employers. It is obvious that, so long as the industrial world is split up into separate groups of producers, each group with a life of its own, and growing or decaying in ceaseless attrition upon its neighbors, there must be insecurity of employment. It is probable that at least one of the most striking specific factors in the problem, namely, cyclical fluctuation of trade, may be traced ultimately to this same course. Unemployment, in other words, is to some extent at least part of the price of industrial competition, part of the waste without which there could be no competition at all. Socialistic criticism of the existing order has therefore on this side much justification. The theoretic reply to that criticism must take the form, not of a denial, but of a gloss, that there may be worse things in a community than unemployment. The practical reply is to be found in reducing the pain of unemployment to relative insignificance. In this there seems to be no impossibility. If the solution of the problem of unemployment means that every man should have the certainty of con-

tinuous work throughout life, then no solution is to be expected, or, indeed desired. If, however, by a solution is meant that no man able and willing to work should come to degradation or destitution for want of wages, then a solution is, not indeed within sight, but by no means beyond hope. Its direction is certain and its distance not infinite. The demand for labor cannot be stereotyped save in a stagnant industry. The supply of labor may be made unmeasurably more capable of following and waiting for the demand.

"This on its two sides—of the following demand and waiting for the demand—is the policy outlined in the two last chapters. The policy may be variously described.

"It is a policy of industrial organization: of meeting deliberately industrial needs that at present are met wastefully because without deliberation. Fluctuations of demand are now provided for by the maintenance of huge stagnant reserves of labor in varying extremities of distress. There is no reason in the nature of things why they should not be provided for by organized reserves of labor raised beyond the reach of distress. To be able to follow the demand men must possess greater powers of intelligent movement from place to place; they must possess also power to move from trade to trade, or—a more essential point—they must have better guidance in the first choice of occupations. To be able to wait for the demand, men must have a reserve for emergencies; they must not be living from hand to mouth; they must, through insurance or its equivalent be able to average wages over good and bad times and to subsist without demoralization till they can be reabsorbed again after industrial transformations. These two measures are complementary and, in some sense indeed, alternative to one another. The better the supply of labor is able to follow the demand, the less will it have to wait for the demand. The greater the power of waiting for the demand, that is to say, the higher the rate or the better the distribution of wages, the less need is there for movement.

"It is a policy of establishing the standard of life upon a longer and broader basis. An individual is not self-supporting unless his earnings amount to a sufficiency for life and not merely to a sufficiency for the time of working. An industry is not self supporting unless it yields wages not only for the time of employment, but also for the time of inevitable unemployment as well; unless it maintains all the men required by it both while they are in active service and while they are standing in reserve. So far, therefore, as the problem arises from fluctuations of industrial activity, it becomes essentially one of wages—of their amount, division and expenditure, and, on this side at least, it falls within ascertainable limits. Fluctuations of trade vary in range but do not vary definitely. So far as the problem arises from changes of industrial structure or loss of industrial quality, it is not so measurable. In practice, however, causes of this nature are relatively unimportant, and in any case the resources, whether provided by individual saving or by way of insurance, which would enable men to tide over periods of temporary depression would also serve to keep them while searching for new occupations.

"It is a policy of making reality correspond with the assumptions of economic theory. Assuming the demand for labor to be single and the supply perfectly fluid, it is not hard to show that unemployment must always be in process of disappearance, that demand and supply are constantly tending to an equilibrium. The ideal for practical reform, therefore, must be to concentrate the demand and to give the right fluidity to the supply.

"Finally, it is a policy of introducing organization and unity where, and only where, they involve no harmful limitation of individual risks and responsibilities. Industrial competition involves that for every piece of work to be done, two separate producing units should offer, that there should be two tenders for every contract. With an unorganized labor market, this means that each of the two contracts tendering has to keep in his neighborhood, or within touch of him, a separate reserve of labor to be called on in case he should be successful. Whichever contractor is successful, one of these reserves will be unemployed. In the socialist state there will be no separate producing units, the two contractors will have been made one for all purposes. In the competitive state with an organized labor market there will still be the two contractors, but they will draw their men from a common centre, and so use the same reserve of labor. Whichever contractor is successful the same men will obtain employment. The only loss of employment will be that of the unsuccessful contractor and his permanent staff. The heaviest stress of competition will fall where it can be borne with the least suffering and where it is most needed to prevent stagnation."

W. H. Beveridge: "Unemployment" (pp. 235 and 237).

Table of Labor Exchanges in Germany (1908).

Type of Exchange.	Number of Exchanges.	Estimated Number of Situations Filled (1904).
1. Public, General	400	550,000
2. Employers'	30	230,000
3. Guild	2,400	213,000
4. Employees'	1,000	120,000
5. Employers' and Employees' Joint Management.....	60	51,000
6. Chambers of Agriculture.....	11	50,000
7. Commercial (i. e., for clerks, travelers, etc.).....	60	25,000

These exchanges put would-be employers and employed into immediate communication, and serve to supply a known market place for labor.

Principal Public Labor Exchanges in Germany.

Town	Population (1905) ¹	Number of Situations Filled in the Last Year ²			Character and Date of Establishment
		Male	Female	Total	
Berlin.....	2,040,090	84,375	15,182	99,557	Voluntary association (1883), with municipal subsidy since 1893.
Stuttgart....	249,000	37,893	18,427	56,320	Municipal (1895).
Munich.....	539,000	29,658	24,015	53,673	Municipal (1895).
Frankfurt...	335,000	21,195	15,701	37,896	Municipal (1895).
Dresden.....	517,000	11,248	22,893	34,141	Voluntary association.
Cologne.....	429,000	21,805	7,359	29,164	Representative association, with all expenditure met by municipality (1894).
Dusseldorf..	253,000	25,862	2,844	28,706	Representative association, with all expenditure by municipality since 1906. Formerly Voluntary Association (1890).
Leipzig.....	504,000	9,945	16,425	26,370	Voluntary association, with municipal subsidy.
Mannheim ..	164,000	19,925	Municipal since 1905. Formerly voluntary association (1893).
Freiburg....	74,000	11,268	6,433	17,701	Municipal since 1897. Formerly voluntary association, with municipal subsidy (1892).
Strassburg..	168,000	12,171	3,293	15,464	Municipal (1895).
Nurnburg...	294,000	9,878	4,940	14,818	Municipal (1896).

¹ These figures can only be taken as a very rough indication of the population actually dealt with by each exchange.

² 1906 or 1906-7, except in the case of Frankfurt (1905-6). Later figures of situation filled can now be given for some of the exchanges, viz.:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Stuttgart (1907)	39,201	23,717	62,918
Munich (1907)	33,602	27,150	60,752
Strassburg (1907-8)	13,772	3,307	17,079
Nurnburg (1907)	10,874	5,175	16,049

In 1906 the Labor Office at Munich, which has a population of about 600,000, found positions for 53,673, classified as follows:

Males.

Unskilled	11,978, or 40.4 per cent. of all males' situations
Skilled (industrial)	11,346, or 38.3 per cent. of all males' situations
Agriculture and forestry.....	3,947, or 13.3 per cent. of all males' situations
Apprentices	1,947, or 6.6 per cent. of all males' situations
Hotel and restaurant service.....	426, or 1.4 per cent. of all males' situations
Commercial	14, or 0.0 per cent. of all males' situations
	<hr/> 29,658

Females.

Hotel and restaurant service.....	7,738, or 32.2 per cent. of all females' situations
Domestic service	7,077, or 29.5 per cent. of all females' situations
Unskilled	6,587, or 27.4 per cent. of all females' situations
Skilled (industrial)	1,868, or 7.8 per cent. of all females' situations
Agriculture	489, or 2.0 per cent. of all females' situations
Apprentices	229, or 1.0 per cent. of all females' situations
	<hr/> 24,015

Positions were found for 9,359 (7,594 males and 1,765 females), outside of Munich, including 291 in Germany outside of Bavaria, and 63 in foreign countries. The number of persons brought into Munich is considerably smaller. Work people sent to places more than 25 km. (15 miles) distant are allowed on presentation of a certificate from the exchange to travel on the State railways at half price, and in 1906 4,438 such certificates were issued. The whole cost of the Labor Exchange is borne by the city.

The Berlin Labor Exchange is the largest single institution of its kind, filling in a recent year about 100,000 positions, 30,324 of which were in the general labor section. It is a voluntary, not a municipal institution, although it receives an appropriation of about \$15,000 a year from the city, and ultimate control and financial responsibility are vested in a voluntary association of subscribers. Applicants are charged on registration a fee of 5 cents, for which they get a certificate admitting them to the waiting rooms of the exchange for three months, or until they get a position. These fees yielded in 1906 \$4,120.

In Freiburg the number of situations annually filled is 1 in 4.2 of the population, in Stuttgart 1 in every 4.4, and in Mannheim 1 in every 8.2.

The following table shows for 1906 for the principal German exchanges the number of situations filled, percentage filled of situations offered and percentage placed of applications.

A. Males, 1906.

	Situations Filled.	Percentage Filled of Situations Offered.	Percentage Placed of Applications.
Berlin	84,375	76.9
Stuttgart	37,893	84.1	72.5
Munich	29,658	86.3	83.1
Frankfurt	22,285	82.8	42.5
Cologne	21,805	95.3	60.7
Dusseldorf	25,862	94.0	68.9
Freiburg	11,268	74.3	50.1
Strassburg	12,171	64.0	53.4
Nurnberg	9,878	82.9	95.4

B. Females, 1906.

	Situations Filled.	Percentage Filled of Situations Offered.	Percentage Placed of Applications.
Berlin	15,182	61.3
Stuttgart	18,427	68.1	92.0
Munich	24,015	63.7	74.1
Frankfurt	15,701	74.4	82.5
Cologne	7,359	66.0	93.8
Dusseldorf	2,844	72.3	71.4
Freiburg	6,433	67.4	72.4
Strassburg	3,293	51.3	48.2
Nurnberg	4,940	61.2	95.2

Owing to differences in the methods of registration, the figures in these columns do not justify any comparison between one exchange and another; they can only be used to compare the activities of the same exchange in different years. The Cologne and Freiburg reports refer to persons applying (*Arbeitsuchende*), the others to applications made (*Arbeit* or *Stellen-gesuche*), but do not all construe "application" in the same way. In Munich, at least, the recorded applications by no means represent all the actual applications.

Practically all the important labor exchanges in Germany have committees of management representing employers and employed.

In 1896 the Trade Union Congress condemned the impartial public labor exchanges; in 1899 it adopted a resolution that "under present conditions the establishment of public labor exchanges might be of great advantage to many trades," and recommended organized labor everywhere to take its part in the management of these institutions.

ATTITUDE OF PUBLIC LABOR EXCHANGES TOWARD LABOR DIFFERENCES.

The attitude to be adopted by public labor exchanges in matters where the interests of employers and employees are opposed has been naturally much discussed. Two questions present themselves.

First—Shall the exchange intervene in questions and conditions of labor in the sense of refusing to notify situations in which wages and conditions do not conform to the "recognized," or trade union standard? The answer in Germany has everywhere been in the negative. No public labor exchange regards the enforcement of any particular conditions of labor as within its functions. Employer and workman must make their own bargain; the exchange cannot and must not attempt to do more than put them into communication. The utmost that may be done, and is often done where an employer offers an exceptionally low wage, is to call his attention to the fact, and to the small likelihood of his getting a man at that price. If, however, the employer wishes it, the exchange is bound to notify the vacancy and the wages offered. Any man willing to accept the offer is free to do so. This principle appears to have been generally accepted as self-evident by everybody concerned—by trade unionists as much as others. Around a second question—as to the attitude of the public exchanges in times of open dispute between the two parties—much controversy has raged. Shall men be supplied through these agencies to take the places of others on strike or locked out? To supply the men is apparently to take the side of the employers against the employees; to refuse to supply them is apparently to take that of the employees against the employers. In this dilemma four principal alternatives have been adopted by different exchanges:

1. To ignore disputes altogether, i. e., to send workmen to a vacancy due to a dispute in exactly the same way as to any other (Nurnberg, Berlin till 1905).

2. To register vacancies created by a dispute and to notify them to applicants for work, but in doing so to give formal notice of the dispute to the individual applicants (Berlin since 1905, Cologne since 1904, Dusseldorf, Frankfurt), and also by placards placed in the exchange premises (Munich since 1898, Stuttgart since 1901, Strassburg).

3. To suspend operations within the range of the dispute during its continuance (Cologne till 1905, Barmen).

4. To make action in each case depend upon the meeting and decision of the Industrial Court sitting as an arbitration tribunal (Munich till 1898, Leipzig).

There can be little doubt that the second of these alternatives has most approved itself in practice. It has been adopted in three leading cases—Berlin, Cologne, Munich—

after trial of one or other of the alternatives. By 1907 the establishment or exclusive use of such an exchange has come to be a common demand of the workmen in collective bargains or even the object of a strike.

The remarkable conversion from former hostility to strong practical support is to be attributed to the following amongst other reasons:

1. Experience of the value of successful exchanges in shortening for the individual workmen the average period between one job and the next, and thus for the union the period of unemployed pay.

2. The failure of purely trade union exchanges to secure general use by employers, except in a few trades in which the men were already completely organized.

3. The establishment by employers of their own exchanges in definite opposition to trade unionism. A public (impartial) exchange is at any rate better from the workmen's point of view than an exchange managed deliberately with the object of maintaining a large reserve of labor or of blacklisting individual "agitators."

The support given to public labor exchanges is not, indeed, uniform. The printing trade has throughout Germany its own independent organization, maintained by joint agreement of employers and employees. A very large number of trade union registries maintain a shadowy existence, and some few a real vigor. This, however, is due mainly to sectional feeling and conservatism; opposition on principle has practically died away.

Suggestions Made by Mr. Percy Alden, M. P., for Dealing with Unemployment.

- (1) The Appointment of a Minister of Commerce and Industry, and the Establishment of a Government Department to Deal Especially with the Question of Unemployment—If this is a national question, a special Minister at the head of a special department should have the responsibility placed upon him of dealing with it. The partial reorganization of existing departments dealing with labor is a necessary preliminary.

- (2) Compulsory Labor Bureaus—These bureaus in telephonic communication should be established in every district as in Germany, and should not be confined to municipal boroughs. They would supply the central department with all the facts and figures for each locality, and help to devise schemes for relief of distress by want of employment in that locality. They should do more than register the names and addresses of the unemployed. Careful investigation should be made in each case, to be followed by classification; employers should be interviewed; work should be found or suggested; railway fares should be paid to districts where work was more plentiful and advice given as to relief stations, labor homes, etc.

- (3) Relief Stations and Labor Homes—The casual ward should be abolished and scattered throughout the country, within walking distance of one day; should be relief stations and labor homes where the unemployed in return for a few hours' work can be boarded and lodged for one or two nights while a search is made for employment. There should be a labor registry in connection with each relief station and the stations and the labor bureau should be in telephonic communication, so that the impostor and the idle vagrant may be easily discovered.

- (4) A Graded System of Farm and Labor Colonies—including the following types:

- (a) A Farm Colony for Married and Unmarried Agricultural Laborers or Men Accustomed to Work on the Land Who Have Migrated to the Town and are Willing to Return to the Country—The difficulties of repatriating the agricultural laborer are not insuperable, and the establishment of a colony removes most of them. There should be a time of probation as in Frederiksoord, in Holland. If this period is successfully passed and the colonist has proved himself to be industrious and efficient, a free farm or small holding should be granted to him at a moderate rent, with security of tenure so long as the tenant proves himself to be able and willing to treat the land fairly. Loans of money for stock, seeds, etc., might be obtained through a local agricultural bank started by the colony for this purpose on the Raiffeisen principle. The free farmers should be organized and taught to work co-operatively as on the small holdings in Lincolnshire and Norfolk. If cottages for the married men are to be cheaply built, the by-laws might have to be relaxed, and in any case the Government, through the county council, should assist in the matter of cheap loans for housing purposes.

- (b) A Farm Colony for Town-Bred Men, Controlled by a Large Municipality or a Group of Small Towns, or a Representative Committee Governing a Fairly Wide Area—These colonies would be for third and fourth rate mechanics chiefly, crushed out by severe competition, or for unskilled laborers of good character, who feel their inability to earn a permanent livelihood in the town. Changes in methods of industry

and severe industrial depression will account for the process of deterioration constantly going on in this class. Some of them may have worked on allotments near the town; but the majority would have to be taught the rudiments of agriculture. The colony should, therefore, be an agricultural training school, so that after a period of probation men may be passed on to colony A.

(c) A Colony Somewhat of the German Type, Including the Criminal Element and Men of Bad Character—The colonists would consist, in the main, of men of the low grade, unskilled, broken down through misfortune, the hopeless and weak-willed men below par, unable to hold their own in the severe competition of the town. In connection with this colony, the labor would be simpler, confined almost entirely to the more elementary work of market gardening, the improvement of land, the making of roads, the trenching of land, and a few simple indoor trades, like basket-work, brush-making and mat-making. Such men are frequently found to improve both in body and mind under the healthy conditions of colony life. The best of them would again be passed on to colony B.

(d) Poor Law Farms for Epileptics, Inebriates and the Physically Defective—The various classes of inmates should be kept separate, and it would be as well to classify in each section. The treatment should be scientific and medical, for example, the percentage of cures in the cases of epilepsy is much greater where sufficient pains in the first place have been taken to trace the causes of the disease. At Bielfeld and Wilhelmsdorf much more care is now being exercised in this matter. For inebriates there are well-known methods of medical treatment which considerably shorten the time during which it is necessary to stay on a farm colony.

(e) Poor Law Colonies Compulsory for the Vagrant and the Wastrel—The example of the Belgian colonies must not be too closely followed. Every effort should be made to reform the vagabond, so that, while compelled to work, he may feel that a door of escape into a higher colony is still left open if only he chooses to avail himself of it. Many of our idle "ne'er-do-wells" are men who have sunk to this low level not altogether as a result of their own evil habits, but partly by reason of the fact that lack of work has caused them to become demoralized and degraded. A certain percentage even of these men might be reformed if properly treated, just as the young criminal is reclaimed by the Borstal system in England, or by the Elmira system in the United States. Men who are at present in a Poor Law farm, like that of Poplar, able-bodied inmates of the workhouse, now willing and ready to do a good day's work, would naturally be handed on to a higher type of colony.

(5) Unemployment Committees or Councils—These committees or councils with spending power conferred by legislation and dealing with the unemployed question over wide areas should consist of representatives of existing bodies somewhat on Mr. Walter Long's plan, with power to call to their aid the trades and union leaders. They should have full authority to deal with the whole problem and to co-ordinate the various agencies throughout their districts. The cost should be borne partly by the local authorities concerned, and partly by the Imperial Government. Under the control of these unemployment committees would be all local relief work, relief stations and labor homes throughout the area, together with a central bureau and one or more labor colonies on the lines already indicated.

(6) The Reclamation of Foreshores and Waste Land, the Building of Sea-walls, etc., by the Government Department, on the Lines of the Experiments Made by the Dutch Government—The great advantage of this work is that much of it can be left for periods of depressed trade, when the unemployed of the large towns can be drafted out for periods of one or two months at a time.

(7) The Apportionment of the Wasted Land by the Government—A beginning should be made with crown lands suitable for this purpose, thus creating a new and profitable industry. There are over ten million acres of waste lands in the United Kingdom suitable for afforestation purposes.

(8) The Improvement of Canals and Inland Waterways—To be purchased by the Government at the present valuation.

(9) The Reorganization of the Port of London, Carrying Out the Recommendations of the Royal Commission with a View to—

(a) The improvement of the port and river.

(b) The reclamation of the river foreshores and

(c) The abolition so far as possible of casual labor in the docks.

(10) Government Grants to Trades Union Unemployed Insurance, with a view to the encouragement of this form of self-help amongst all grades of skilled labor. The subsidies should be proportionate to the contributions of the trades unions.

(11) A Shorter Working Day for All Government and Municipal Employees—This should especially be the case with regard to those who are employed in the work

of transport and locomotion, where foreign competition can play only a very small part. It has been pointed out that in the case of the London County Council tramways, shorter hours in conjunction with proper management have resulted in increased profits.

(12) Until some, at least, of these recommendations are carried out, disfranchisement as a result of receiving Poor Law relief should be abolished. At present only the industrious poor are so disqualified, for the remainder, as a rule, have no fixed domicile.

In addition to these direct methods of dealing with the problem of unemployment we must never forget that the solution of the question depends, in the long run, not so much on the immediate palliatives which we may be able to suggest as upon such reconstruction and reorganization of society as will give prominence to the ethical and the co-operative rather than the competitive factors in our national life. While every effort is made to improve and strengthen individual character and to encourage the formation of such habits as will help to obviate many of the social ills we deplore, we must not forget the tendency of conditions and environment to create those evils.

REPORT AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON CHARITIES OF THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION, PREPARED BY ALDERMAN STEPHEN CALLAGHAN, CHAIRMAN.

After careful consideration of the causes of poverty in New York City, the Committee have come to the following conclusions:

First. That causes of poverty, such as unemployment, accident, bad housing or underemployment, low wages, overcrowding, sickness, widowhood, lack of male support, inefficiency or lack of training, drunkenness or laziness and pre-eminently the high cost of land and high rents due to land speculation and unjust methods of taxation, are not in any way removed or even materially improved, but rather aggravated by the present methods of both public and private charity in New York City.

Public charity officials admit that they do not attempt to ascertain the causes which bring the patients to Bellevue or other public institutions, but merely take them as they come, and do the best possible for them when they make application, with the exception, of course, that they do not assist those who have not a legal right or claim to public charity. It is manifestly impossible for them to do this careful investigation unless they have larger appropriations for this specific purpose.

It is not the function of this Committee, it understands, to discuss or pass upon the efficiency of administration of any city or state charitable institution, since there are now municipal administrative committees charged with this duty, but merely to indicate to what extent the institutions are made necessary by congestion of population and room overcrowding and what effect they have upon perpetuating congestion and room overcrowding or really relieving these conditions.

It is inevitable that with the multiplicity of private charities in the City responsible to no one and dependent for adequate support upon the showing they make of persons relieved, visits paid, etc., that there should be both duplication and waste.

The City has not at present any outdoor relief—that is, relief to the poor in their homes, with the exception of pensions to the blind, this municipal function having been assumed by private charitable societies with an enormous influence in the State Legislature on the plea that they could administer this relief to the poor of the City more economically, more efficiently and with better net results to the City as a whole, and that the City cannot be trusted to give public outdoor relief because there would be “politics” in it.

The Committee finds, however, the following facts with respect to outdoor relief, i. e., relief to the poor in their homes by private charities:

(1) Over 150,000 persons, it is known, receive outdoor relief and a larger number, counting in the beneficiaries of churches and small charities, probably at least 500,000 persons, receive some relief annually in New York City, at least one in every nine persons in the City.

(2) Much of the relief given by these societies is given to people living in congested districts with very high land values where they cannot possibly afford a proper standard of living on the usual wages for unskilled workers.

(3) Relief is being given by certain charities in the City to people living in such unhealthy rooms and apartments that the Department of Health refused to grant a license for home manufacture, which indicates that the rooms were in very bad condition.

(4) Relief is given by private societies to families in tenements where manufacture is constantly going on.

(5) That although private charities claimed a few years ago when they opposed public outdoor relief, that they could meet the needs of the community for such relief, they are manifestly unable to meet these needs, if a decent standard is maintained among the wage-earners of the city. Honest and self-respecting citizens hesitate to apply to any society for relief, and the relief given by some of the large societies is inadequate to maintain a family and is not continued for a sufficiently long time, as admitted by some of the large societies. More money is given by societies in time of unemployment and in dull trade seasons.

(6) That a large part of the money given by private charity is wasted or unnecessary because it is given to make amends or to counteract the results of bad housing conditions and unsafe or underpaid employment. The financial agent (at that time) of one of the oldest charities in Manhattan stated before the Committee that, "between one-half and two-thirds of the money spent on charity in the city is wasted or unnecessary."

The evidence presented by experts in charitable work and by a study of actual records shows that the public and private charity of the city is at best an ineffective and costly method of attempting to make atonement for bad housing conditions, low wages, and the evident desire of certain manufacturers in New York City to keep within walking distance of their factories a surplus of unskilled workers. They well know that starvation knows no minimum wage, and that the hordes of immigrants who come to this city looking for employment will for some time continue to work for these starvation wages.

The continuance of private or public charity to these classes of unfortunates means that the land speculator, the tenement sweater and the exploiting manufacturer put upon the respectable and hard working citizens of New York City the burden of caring for the victims of their injustice and this means a very large share of the \$15,000,000 which the City and state spend in New York City. As for private charity's expenditures of about \$20,000,000 annually, this represents a premium put upon these private charities by these same three classes of exploiters of New York's wage earners, in so far as their exploitation creates the need for this expenditure.

Third. So long as the present causes of poverty and sickness continue the cost to the public and private charity of the City will not only continue but necessarily increase. Even with the enormous expenditures today by the City and by the hundreds of private charitable societies but a small part of the money required to counteract the results of the death-dealing conditions in the City is really spent.

New York has never yet estimated what it would cost to do two things which it should long since have undertaken.

To care through public funds for all the widows with children who are competent to care for their children in their own healthy homes.

To eradicate consumption as far as it exists to-day. It must in fairness be stated that so long as the occupancy of rooms now legally permitted to be occupied continues, we shall continue to have about 28,000 new cases of consumption and 10,000 deaths from consumption every year, but the city is under solemn obligations to spend any amount needed to restore to health the lives of the citizens now being murdered with the City's connivance in the tenements of the City and as well to care for the families of these victims, and while this may be done under the Department of Public Charities, it must not be regarded as a charity, but rather as a solemn obligation the City owes to the families of those slaughtered in process of creating land values in the imperial City.

The cost of caring adequately for the present cases of consumption will be approximately \$8,000,000 for the first year, \$5,000,000 for the second and lesser amounts each succeeding year.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE.

The Committee beg to make the following recommendations:

(1) All private charities in the City, whether directly receiving subsidy from the City or not, but who occupy land or buildings exempt from taxation should be under the same supervision of the Department of Finance as those directly receiving per diem appropriations from the City are now under supervision by the State Board of Charities. As has already been pointed out most of these charities receive valuable appropriation from the City in the form of exemption from taxation, which amounts to approximately one-sixtieth at present of the total valuation of their land and improvements, and in some cases amounts to as much as several thousand dollars a year.

In addition, the policy of many private societies is to give relief without much, and often without any realization of, the results of the charity. If immigrants become a charge on public charities within three years of their arrival they become liable to de-

portation under the Immigration Law; they may, however, apply with impunity to private charities and receive sufficient aid to enable them to maintain a proper standard of living, and then as soon as the three years expire they are eligible to assistance from the public charities of the City or State. On the other hand, the giving of private charity to people in congested districts is most expensive to the City. In the long run the City or State must take care of the poor of any community. If private charities find that families applying for relief do not live properly or exert themselves adequately, they withhold or refuse relief, and this is the most that they can do to secure normal conditions in the family. With such a wealth of charities in the City to turn to, however, the family that has even one member not feeble-minded can readily secure assistance. The city is ultimately responsible for the living or death of its citizens, and however zealous and scientific private charities may be they should not be permitted to assume the functions of government without governmental supervision at least. The present tendency of private charities is to give relief to those who apparently need it most and they unquestionably tend to hold in New York City many people who might otherwise take work outside of the City, even in those cities and districts without the multitudinous charities of New York. The City, as ultimate sponsor for citizens, should regulate and supervise the work of private charities for citizens.

At present there is no such supervision of the hundreds of smaller charities, except a Bureau of Advice and Information in the Charity Organization Society, which reports upon the fitness of societies or organizations applying to the public for support.

It is an interesting illustration of the assumption by private charities of the regulative function of government, but indefensible on either practical or theoretical grounds. Strong charities such as the Charity Organization Society and presumably others should welcome City supervision over private charities.

(2) More careful supervision should be made between classes of applicants for public charity; that is, a distinction should be drawn upon the basis of previous effort and conduct between those who apply for public relief. Those who have been hard working and thrifty and who are in want through conditions entirely beyond their control such as loss of health through unsanitary housing or labor conditions or through the death or sickness or injury of the wage earner should not be treated as paupers in any sense of the word. They are entitled to relief just as much as veterans of a war. On the other hand those who have been shiftless and improvident or have been addicted to the excessive use of drink or to other excesses should be treated on an entirely different basis.

Any assistance given to the former class should be regarded as relief due them by the City; any assistance given to the latter class should be regarded as charity and the taking thereof should involve a stigma upon the recipient. To a certain extent this distinction is already made by the Department of Public Charities. The agents of many of the large charitable societies frequently stated before your Committee that their societies are unable to meet the demands upon them, and that they are unable to give adequate relief to the families regarded as under their care or to continue that relief for a sufficient length of time.

(3) Private charities having shown definitely that they cannot provide the assistance which is needed by the poor of New York City, it is evident that recourse must be had to public outdoor relief; that is, to relief by the City to the families whose chief wage earner is unable to provide for them in their own homes outside of congested districts. In this way the City can prevent much of the sickness and resultant expense to the taxpayers, due to the under-nourishment of families and, at the same time, encourage the distribution of families. Your committee appreciate that there are some dangers in this policy of improving the condition of the poor, which we discuss, but believe that these dangers are not any more serious than are those of relief by private charities.

Dangers of Public Outdoor Relief.

(a) The relief may practically result in a lowering of wages since the employer may feel that as the City will look after his workers if he doesn't pay them sufficient wages, he may, therefore, with impunity, continuously underpay them. This danger inheres equally in giving relief to the poor by private charities, and the Committee on Labor and Wages of this Commission have already suggested a corrective to such procedure on the part of the employer by suggesting the creation of an Industrial Commission in the City, whose duties it shall be not only to intervene when strikes or lock-outs are threatened but as well constantly to investigate labor conditions and wages paid in the City, both to skilled and unskilled wage earners, organized and unorganized, and to endeavor, by persuasion, and where necessary, by publicity, to secure the payment of better wages.

(b) "Politics" will interfere with the giving of adequate relief to families who need it, and will involve waste and giving of large sums to families when the wage-

earning voters belong to the party in power. Undoubtedly there may be a tendency to utilize the expenditure of any public funds to further political ends just as the distribution of private funds by private societies is susceptible of being used for the furthering of private ends.

In the judgment of the Committee, however, any such improper use of funds can be corrected by proper publicity.

(c) The net result of the City's giving relief to the poor in their homes will be to give this charity to the landowner and tenement sweeper since it anchors people in congested districts. In so far as relief is given to people in congested districts by the City, when they would otherwise move to sections where they could get healthier housing at lower rents, the same benefit will be conferred upon landlord and tenement owner, as is conferred when the relief is given to those in these places by the private charities of the City. It is true that this is the result of a good deal of private charity and that the ultimate beneficiaries of so-called charity, a difference between public and private charity is, that the giver of private charity has no control whatsoever over the recipients of their charity, except a shadowy moral control and the threat to withhold relief.

It is only government that can determine the location of recipients of charity and government which should do so.

Private charities may continue their care of families as long as they have funds to do this and then drop the families, but the City is responsible in the long run for the indigent sick and infirm. It need hardly be stated that the City should not, any more than should private charity, give any relief to people living in unsanitary tenements in congested districts or to those who are dissipated. As has already been stated a distinction should be made in relief granted to various classes of applicants. Outdoor Relief should be dispensed through a Board of Trustees of Public Outdoor Relief, appointed by the Mayor, analogous to the trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, to be provided with an expert administrator, offices, investigators and equipment.

Although the Committee have not found that all the witnesses who have appeared before them have agreed with them on this proposition, they are willing to accept the conclusion reached by the Minority of the English Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress. This conclusion is given in the Minority Report (p. 690): "That the abolition of Outdoor Relief to the non-able-bodied is, in our judgment, wholly impracticable, and, even if it were possible, it would be contrary to the public interest. There are, and in our opinion there always will be, a large number of persons to whom public assistance must be given, who can, with most advantage to the community, continue to live at home; for instance, widows with children whose homes deserve to be maintained intact, sick persons for whom domiciliary treatment is professionally recommended, the worthy aged having relatives with whom they can reside, and such of the permanently incapacitated (the crippled, the blind, etc.) as can safely be left with their friends. Nor can the community rely on voluntary charity providing for these cases. In many places such charity does not exist, and in many others there is no warrant for assuming that it would ever be adequate to the need. Moreover, our investigations show that voluntary charity, in so far as it exists in the forms of doles and allowances to persons in their homes, has all the disastrous characteristics of a laxly administered Poor Law."

It should be noted that despite the fact that there are in New York City hundreds of relief-giving agencies, that there are practically none in either Queens or Richmond, while their efforts have been concentrated chiefly in the congested Borough of Manhattan and the congesting sections of Brooklyn and The Bronx.

(4) The City should pay pensions to widows with children when these widows are competent to care for their children. The number of widows with several children in New York City at present can be only estimated, but the methods now followed by the private charities and the City alike in dealing with such cases is entirely unsatisfactory. Private charities admit that they cannot give adequate relief, while the City, to a large extent, separates the family, putting the children in institutions and letting the mother earn her own living, when the total cost of caring for three or four children in institutions, whether public institutions or private institutions, in receipt of per diem or weekly appropriations from the City, may be greater than the cost of caring for the entire family. The care the mother can give the children is worth, however, a larger expenditure by the City. This relief should also be administered through the Board of Trustees of Public Outdoor Relief, but widows should be required to live in districts selected by this Board of Trustees, and in wards with a density of not over 300 to the acre, and under housing conditions approved by this Board.

Mr. Homer Folks, former Commissioner of Public Charities of New York, although questioning the feasibility of public relief to the poor in their homes, favored

before the Committee the granting of pensions by the City to widows with children, provided the mothers meet certain standards as to character. He emphasized, however, that this relief should not be regarded in any sense as charity to the widows, but that it should be done on a basis, so far as practical, to take it out of the realm of charity and approach as nearly as possible to an indemnity for the earning capacity of the husband, so that the mother may be enabled to bring up her children as they would have been brought up had their father lived and worked for them.

Former Commissioner of Public Charities, Robert W. Heberd, stated that some private charities in the City do not give, as a rule, more than \$1 to \$1.50 a week to families, which, of course, is not enough to support the family adequately, so that the family must be broken up and the children placed in institutions. He strongly endorsed the City's giving pensions to good widows with children.

Mrs. Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch, who has been for many years head resident of Greenwich House Settlement, and in constant touch with the conditions of poor families on the lower East side, advocated the giving of pensions to such widows with children as the only humane method of meeting the City's responsibility to their families, as well as a more economical method of caring for the children.

The Minority Report of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress recommends: "That for widows or other mothers in distress having the care of young children, residing in homes not below the national minimum of sanitation, and being themselves not adjudged unworthy to have children entrusted to them, there should be granted adequate home aliment on condition of their devoting their whole time and energy to the care of the children. That for the childless wives of able-bodied men in attendance at a training establishment, adequate home aliment be granted, conditional on their devoting their time to such further training in domestic economy as may be prescribed for them."

(5) The City should adopt a policy of removing charitable institutions from congested districts (except emergency hospitals and similar institutions). Mrs. Florence Kelley has submitted to the Committee a list of 50 institutions of different kinds located in congested sections of New York. The total assessed values of the sites alone of six of these institutions in 1909 amounted to \$4,026,000, which is, of course, tax exempt, while the total appropriation by the City to these six institutions for 1910 was \$945,487.66. The cost to the City and the wastefulness of permitting such institutions to occupy costly exempt sites is very serious, but even more serious is the evil effect upon the children and other inmates of such institutions.

The congestion and overcrowding in some of these institutions, the Committee was informed, is as serious as exists in any tenements in the City.

Commissioner Folks, who is recognized throughout the world as an expert in child saving and child caring work, stated that the most serious evil of the crowded conditions in institutions for children is the fact that children do not have a chance to develop the affections in a purely normal way, and it is impossible to reproduce the kind of home life they will have to live subsequently.

Mrs. Florence Kelley also called attention to the fact that for the health and welfare of public charges it is obviously desirable that they should have most favorable surroundings, which they cannot have in the crowded parts of New York City. By reason, too, of the unsuitable location of certain charitable institutions in New York, the City's charges committed to them cannot be employed at outdoor occupations such as might befit their physical and moral needs, but are confined to the work of the institutions and the needle trades and laundry work. These latter are two of the most undesirable occupations for which women and girls can be trained.

Various suggestions have been made as to the best methods of securing the removal of the scores of charitable institutions now located in congested districts of the City. Commissioner Heberd recommended that a much larger per capita appropriation be given to institutions that are organized on the cottage plan in the country, so that this in itself would be an inducement to remove their institutions. He also advocated the City's taking an active policy in encouraging the removal by refusing to give them appropriations after a stated time.

Commissioner Folks also stated: "It is essentially the right thing for the City to use its influence to expedite the removal of such institutions to the country, and insist upon its being done. I do not mean by any harsh methods or through coercion. I would begin by calling on them for a statement as to whether they are planning to go to the country and when they expect to go, and by declaring that the City was in favor of this cottage system, and urging upon these institutions to adopt it and that within a reasonable time, and then again later call upon them for a report of progress, and if they have not in any way given the matter attention or done anything further about adopting this plan, fix a time limit for them to do something in."

The Committee therefore recommend that the Comptroller should be re-

quested to ascertain from the management of every charitable institution, except emergency hospitals in Manhattan and lower Bronx and the western half of Brooklyn, in receipt of per capita, per diem or weekly appropriations from the City for their inmates, as well as from the City departments, whether they plan to remove from these districts to cheaper land, either in the outer sections of the City or in the City limits, and if so, when they plan to move, and that they should be notified that if they have not taken any steps to move their institutions prior to July 1, 1912, that they will not be eligible for any appropriation from the City for the year 1913. They feel that this action is justified, inasmuch as the assessed land values of charitable institutions tax exempt in congested districts in the City amounts to approximately \$25,000,000. This land being tax exempt, is assessed at lower values than it would be if improved by buildings for commercial, business or tenement purposes; moreover, the buildings themselves are, of course, tax exempt, and it is most conservative to estimate that the property including several scores of acres would, if improved by buildings for commercial and business purposes, add an additional taxable value to the City of approximately \$70,000,000. This amount, it must be remembered, represents approximately one one-hundredth of the taxable value of the real estate in New York City, including land, improvements, real estate of corporations and special franchises. At a tax rate of \$1.80 per hundred on the assessed value, this represents a total annual loss to the City of \$1,260,000, and this is practically a net loss, since the total values of land and buildings in the outlying sections of the City would be a relatively small aggregate as compared with this loss to the City of the tax exemption on these institutions in the central part of New York. The total assessed value of private and public charitable institutions in Manhattan, The Bronx and the western and north central part of Brooklyn in 1910 was \$68,523,050, and the total appropriations made to charitable institutions through the Comptroller's office was \$4,734,252.26.

While it does not come directly within the scope of the Committee on Charities to refer even to the labor problem, they nevertheless note their agreement with the Minority Report of the English Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress, "that no effective steps can be taken towards the 'Decasualization of Casual Labor,' and the Suppression of Unemployment, without simultaneously taking action to ensure the immediate absorption, or else to provide the full and honorable maintenance, at the public expense, of the surplus of laborers that will thereby stand revealed." This does not mean that the Committee believe that the City or the State is responsible for furnishing work to the workless in New York City, nor would they make this the Mecca for those who do not work for more than a few hours a day or a few months or weeks in the year. They recognize fully that although statistics have not been prepared showing that immigrants as they arrive in New York cannot maintain enough to support themselves, yet the consensus of opinion has been that the enormous majority of immigrants are living in overcrowded conditions even for a number of years after they arrive here, largely because they cannot produce the amount necessary to enable them to maintain the standard of living in New York City. It would certainly be a serious mistake for the City to attract any more immigrants to become a public charge, even for a few years after their arrival. As a practical means, however, of enabling the class who are now practically dependents, and the vastly larger numbers who would be dependents upon either public or private charities if New York City dares to enforce a decent and healthy standard of housing, the Committee suggest that the City should purchase large tracts of land, either in partially settled sections of the Boroughs of Richmond and Brooklyn and Queens, where land has today only a nominal value, and provide decent homes for the City's poor similar to the New York City Farm Colony, as the report of that institution shows that inmates of this colony are able to raise a large proportion of the vegetables which they consume. While also statistics have not been kept either by private charities giving relief which indicate to what extent their beneficiaries must live near their work, they indicate the following very important causes of poverty: Long hours of work, temporary employment, low wages, high rentals and lack of training.

The Committee are convinced that it will be entirely feasible to train adults in agriculture and in gardening in this larger City Farm Colony, as the State is distinctly and sorely in need of trained agriculturists and farm laborers. The people who do this work should be paid at the rate locally current for the work, while any products should be sold by the City at the current rates; also, a careful record should be kept of the actual cost of the institution to the City.

(6) The Committee also urges the necessity of a Municipal Labor Exchange or Bureau, and that the State be urged to undertake immediately the reclamation of waste lands in the State, as well as a wiser forestry policy.

The Committee have not underestimated either the responsibility of industry for the support of workers nor the personal element and individual responsibility for

poverty. They endorse the principle of workingmen's compensation and employers' liability. They recognize that both public and private relief, whether indoor or outdoor, are only interim measures, but nevertheless essential under present organization of society.

They urge the development of a system of public social insurance, and that such a system of public insurance be adopted, based upon cost and incumbent upon all members of the community with an income of less than \$1,200 a year and permissive up to \$2,000.

A. Statement of Hon. Robert W. Hebbard, Secretary of the State Board of Charities, on Charities.

There are a great many charities connected with churches as well as fraternal societies in the City that are spending large sums for charity and it is not possible to estimate exactly what they are spending. It is evident, however, that the present methods of charitable societies is not improving permanently the sufferers from congestion or establishing better standards of living, because they are not dealing effectively with conditions which are making their work necessary.

We cannot exterminate consumption without distributing population and keeping people out of unsanitary and dark buildings in which they are living now. It is very difficult for the government to establish completely a standard of living, that is to determine what food and how much people must eat, but the state or municipality must establish a housing standard.

Alderman Callaghan: Do you think public outdoor relief should be given, or can the private charities themselves meet the present demands?

Commissioner Hebbard: Private charities claimed some time ago that outdoor relief in New York City was a bad thing and detrimental to the public interest and secured its abolition, claiming that they could meet the needs. It would be better for private charities to come out now and say that they are not able to raise the money needed to relieve destitution in the City and that they are not filling the bill in this respect.

The National Conference on Dependent Children called by President Roosevelt emphasized the fact that good women bringing up children should be helped in their homes, since this is a great deal better for them than breaking up the homes and placing the children in institutions. In order to do this, however, private charities in the City must pay the mother larger sums than they do at present. Some charities do not give as a rule more than \$1 per week for families, which of course is not enough to enable them to support the family adequately, even with what the families can earn themselves.

Alderman Callaghan: Should the City give money to private charities giving relief in homes and exercise very careful supervision over the expenditure thereof?

Commissioner Hebbard: The City should not give money to private charities giving relief in homes until private charities admit they cannot raise the money necessary to look after families in their charge.

Alderman Campbell: Can you give any figures of cost of children in institutions?

Commissioner Hebbard: The City pays \$2.10 per child per week for all children committed through the City departments to institutions; and if they are cared for on the cottage plan 25 cents per week more per child. A good many of the private children's societies, however, pay money to families who board their children, if the children are kept in good condition. The City should pay at least 50 cents per week per child more in institutions which care for children on the cottage system since this would be a great incentive to them to go into the country where the children would be healthier and be better kept; \$2.10 per child per week is not sufficient to meet the expense of shelter, food, doctoring, clothing and teaching of children and the City is not paying enough at present so that the children can be properly cared for. Most of the institutions are giving the City more than they are paid for and the State Board of Charities has supervision over all institutions which are drawing public money, and they cannot secure the funds or appropriation until they have a certificate from the State Board of Charities that the conditions are right and children or others well cared for. The Commissioner of Public Charities in New York City should, however, have some one who could visit these institutions more regularly and keep closer supervision over the children. The Brooklyn Howard Colored Orphan Asylum has difficulty in getting a sufficient support to care properly for children in its charge at the low rate paid by the City, but they have promised to move out to St. James, L. I.

Unless an institution has a large enough endowment or Brothers and Sisters to serve without pay, they cannot afford to give children adequate care at \$2.10 per child per week.

Alderman Callaghan: In what condition are the hospitals in the City?

Commissioner Hebbard: They are also under supervision of the State Board of Charities if in receipt of public money. At least 1,200 cubic feet per patient is required; although the State Board of Charities decided to permit that to be reduced in certain hospitals to 800 cubic feet if superior ventilating conditions are provided. The City has not made any appropriation for the construction of buildings for some time, although the population is increasing at the rate of 150,000 a year and the number of sick and infirm to be cared for increases about 500 to 1,000 a year and the City must make large appropriations to catch up with the needs.

Alderman Callaghan: Should hospitals except emergency hospitals be moved out of the City?

Commissioner Hebbard: It is not feasible to do that for most hospitals, but Blackwells Island and Randalls Island should be kept for children and Flatbush Hospital in Brooklyn should also be improved with hospital parks for the sick.

Penal institutions should be removed to Rikers Island and the workhouse to Harts Island.

Penal institutions should be placed outside of New York City or on the islands.

About \$35,000,000 was spent in New York City by private and public charities last year, including expenditures by the State for public charities.

Expenditures for Public Charities, including Department of Health and

Bellevue and State Hospitals	\$15,000,000 00
Expenditures for Private Charities about.....	20,000,000 00

This estimate includes construction of buildings and interest on investments for various public and private charities.

The policy of giving inadequate relief by private charities tends to keep people in congested districts.

The Tenement House Law regarding overcrowding should be enforced as it is not enforced at present, and the City would then see what the result would be in diminishing overcrowding in the rooms. A few cases vigorously enforced would suffice to deter people from living several in a room.

Commissioner Hebbard was asked whether the private charities not in receipt of public moneys should be under the control of the public authorities, but preferred not to commit himself on that point at present.

The Hospital Commission Report suggests the provision of large yards for hospitals.

Alderman Campbell: Are there any young men in the almshouse?

Commissioner Hebbard: There are a few able-bodied men in the almshouse and there are opportunities for them to work on the farm. Any young men there are in some respect mentally deficient.

B. Statement Submitted by Mr. Homer Folks, Secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, Formerly Member of the Board of Aldermen of New York City and Commissioner of Public Charities, 1902 to 1903.

Chairman Callaghan asked Mr. Folks if he had prepared a statement to the questions which had been submitted to him and Mr. Folks replied that he had not done so, but said he had looked them over and would comment informally as follows:

"The topics which you have asked me to speak on include a number of subjects on which the State Charities Aid Association has had no occasion to take any attitude on or to give any study to, and I will therefore speak not as Secretary of that organization but entirely as an individual.

Answering the first question as to what is the result of maintaining charitable institutions in congested districts where land values are high, my answer is that further congestion is the result, and congestion of a very serious kind in these institutions. I am more especially interested in the institution for the care of needy children and have no hesitation in saying that to keep these institutions in the congested portion of the City is an extremely unfortunate thing for the inmates of these institutions irrespective of any effect it may have on those portions of the City. As to land values, of that I do not feel qualified to speak, but as to the inmates of the institutions, I have given that matter considerable thought for a long time. We have some very good illustrations of institutions that have moved out and have rebuilt in the country where they can get plenty of land at a moderate price and where they can build on the cottage plan and the building on small farms and the directors secure individual attention for each inmate there and bring each inmate there in closer relation with grown-up people who care for them and who are called House Mothers and House Fathers. I think it is the general belief of all institutions that the cottage plan is desirable. It is recognized by the City, as the Board of Estimate pay a larger sum per week to institutions that have adopted this plan. Among these are the St. Christopher's Home for Children at Dobbs Ferry, and the Orphan Asylum Society, which left Riverside

Drive and went out to Hastings, the New York Catholic Protectory in its country branch in the upper portion of Westchester, all have this plan, and the Hebrew Guardian Association is now rebuilding on the cottage plan in the country.

The Catholic Protectory have a section of a large farm and are putting up some buildings on the modified cottage plan. My impressions are that there is nothing more serious than the congested conditions of some of these institutions in the sense of having such a large number of people in a very small area, as for instance the older portion of the New York Catholic Protectory. I think the situation is fully appreciated by the managers of these institutions and they would be glad if they could see their way clear to finance the new enterprise and move out to the country and rebuild on the cottage plan; at least I know that some of the managers feel that way about it.

(a) The evils of having a large number of children in institutions in congested districts are of many kinds. There are those that are purely physical, there are those that relate to the normal development of the children, there are those that relate to the mental development and the impossibility of reproducing the kind of homelife they will have to live in subsequently, and the most serious of these in my judgment is the moral considerations, as the children do not have a chance to develop the affections in a purely normal way.

Q. Should private charities be encouraged to continue institutions in such districts?

A. No, I think that where the City largely supports institutions, as it does in most cases, or even if it pays nothing at all, it is not only the proper thing for the City to use its influence to secure their removal to the country, but it is par-excellence the way to accomplish the result, and as the City has a great deal more at stake than anybody else as to the character of its future citizens, and as the surroundings and life of these children to-day have so much to do with the future character of these men and women, it is essentially the right thing for the City to use its influence to expedite the removal of such institutions to the country and insist upon its being done. I do not mean by any harsh methods or through coercion. I would begin by calling on them for a statement as to whether they are planning to go to the country and when they expect to go and by declaring that the City was in favor of the cottage system and urging upon these institutions to adopt it and that within a reasonable time, and then again later call upon them for a report of progress and if they have not in any way given the matter attention, or done anything further about adopting this plan, fix a time limit for them to do something in.

Q. Why do charitable institutions remain in the City and desire to remain?

A. Inertia. The fact that the managers can visit them more readily, that the parents of the children can visit them more frequently and that perhaps they had not heard about this other way of doing it very much and had not given the matter any consideration if they had heard. Then I think that no doubt that naturally they are waiting for their city property to increase in value so that it will enable them to buy and build; some of our wealthiest charity institutions gained their wealth in that way.

Q. What is the result of giving charity to the residents of congested districts and occupants of overcrowded rooms in such districts?

A. If you mean the giving of private charity by private associations, etc., I would say that it all depends on how wisely it is given. In its best form, families should be removed from their overcrowded rooms and overcrowded districts and forced to live under conditions which are healthy and sanitary. The giving of help in many cases should be dependent upon these people maintaining better standards of living and more sanitary conditions. The enforcement of rules for health and sanitary conditions should remain entirely on those getting relief. Relief giving does not have any effect either one way or the other, except as it is inadequate on one hand or adequate and with proper standards on the other.

(b) As to that part of the question relating to sanitation, I think I should plead not having any particular knowledge on that, as I have never gone into the matter at all, and if I should have to consider this matter I would call upon experts to advise me, Prof. C. E. Winslow of the City College is one very excellent authority on that subject.

Q. To what extent, if at all, do private charities, by inadequate relief to people living in congested districts and overcrowded rooms, increase the cost of the public charity of the City by making it possible for people to remain in congested quarters to their physical deterioration or impairment?

A. That implies a degree of knowledge of the different private charities which I do not possess. I do not know. I should believe, generally speaking, a reasonably high standard is maintained; I have no means of knowing.

Q. Are private charities able to meet the cost of providing decent or healthy

standard of housing for underpaid workers in congested quarters? If not, should the City renew its policy of giving relief to the poor in the homes?

A. By private charities I take you to mean those that administer private funds. I believe that the state should exercise the power of inspection over all charitable institutions, whether public or private, where there is charity given, not only to prevent the waste of money, but more particularly to protect people from being injured. I am clear and strong on that, but I should not, however, think it desirable that the City or State should have the authority to lay down rules and regulations by which the private charities handling private funds should operate, but I think the power to inspect these institutions and careful reports made of the conditions found, and the publicity of this information would cure the evils, but I do not believe that we have better administration when we tie these people hand and foot by rules and regulations. No. I do not think that private charities are able to meet the cost of providing decent housing for underpaid workers, etc. At least they say they are not, and I am willing to take their word for it. I know, for instance, that the Hebrew Society have at times said that it was not able to give relief to those that came to it, and the St. Vincent de Paul Society in Brooklyn have stated that at times it was forced to stand by and see the children of widows committed to institutions, and the home in this way broken up when they would have liked to keep the home together by charity, but were unable to do so.

I do not think that the City should re-establish a general outdoor relief system, and do not think we would be any better off with such a system than we are now, for the reason that so long that it is given as charity to all kinds of people needing relief, it will always be asked and those that really do need it will not ask for it, and those that will take advantage of it many times are not the most worthy of it, and the worthy poor will not apply. As to what they do in this respect in foreign countries, I do not know.

I do not think that this relief business should be broken up, and not necessarily that all should be treated alike. For instance, I think it is possible to treat a widow and her family in an entirely different way from others. That is a problem by itself. I think the time has come when we ought to consider the necessity of making some more adequate provision for widows in their homes. Now, of course, if private charity comes forward with a large amount for that purpose this might meet the situation, but it has not done so yet. I do not believe that the distribution of public funds to widows who meet certain other standards as to the character, etc., would be exposed to the evils that would be attached to a general outdoor relief system, and that it should be done on the basis, as far as practical, as to take it out of the realm of charity and approach as near as possible to an indemnity for the earning capacity of the husband, and I think this would be working along the right lines, and if the widow did not wish to make a public charge of her children she should be helped in this way to bring up her children as they would have been had the husband's wages continued, and the nearer we can come to making this method possible the more it would realize my standards and views. Of course this applies only to the respectable widow with children. If some plan could be worked out by which we could pension the widows or as an indemnity for the loss of the husband's earnings, I think you would find a good deal of support for that. It is a hard plan to work out, but I have no doubt but that it is the correct principle.

Q. I think the only condition should be that she occupy quarters that comply with the minimum standards of air, space and light, but I would not say that she should go to the country, but that she should live in the proper kind of quarters as to light, windows, etc., which go to make sanitary conditions and healthy conditions, and I think it should be one of the provisions, however, that there should be no boarders in such quarters and some means outlined to make sure that this is complied with.

Q. What is the ultimate result of giving relief to the poor in congested districts?

A. The result of giving relief depends on how wisely it is given. I do not think it tends to reduce wages or increase congestion, if properly done, and I do not see how it increases land speculation.

Q. What should be the relief policy of the city with respect to the care of widows with children now living in congested districts and overcrowded rooms?

A. I am ready for the City or State, if the private charities do not come forward and do it, to see either the City or State provide for widows with children. I think it is time that widows with children should be provided for by the City or State, and I do not believe that a woman can be a mother and be wage earner and take care of the children at the same time, that is, if there are several children. Even if the children were sent to a Day Nursery in the daytime, I believe it would

be asking too much for a mother to take care of herself and two children continually; she would break down, get tuberculosis, pneumonia or some other disease, and the City would be saving in the wrong place and eventually all become a burden on the charitable institutions. I think a woman can support herself and one child without any trouble. I think the private charities could take care of the Day Nurseries, because it does not take very much money.

Q. Are Day Nurseries inspected by doctors?

A. I do not know, but I think so. I think, however, that they should be under very close medical observation.

Q. Would a law giving the City the right to send doctors in to inspect Day Nurseries be constitutional?

A. I think so.

Q. What jurisdiction has the State over private charitable institutions?

A. To no extent, except to protect the health of the people in such institutions on the health side only. I think the City or State should insist upon a periodical examination of all children going to these institutions, the same as required by the public schools. I think this periodical examination of all children by good medical authorities could be enforced and should be, so that all children may be examined by a competent doctor before being admitted to such institutions, and periodically thereafter.

Q. What would be the relief policy of the City with respect to underfed children in the public schools?

A. I have not given that question close enough study to enable me to speak about it, but I am willing to give my impressions upon it. I think it would be desirable that meals should be furnished at cost at the schools. I do not think they should be free. I think the giving of meals to such as cannot pay for same should be treated as a charity problem, but would not make any difference between the meals furnished to the children. I think the meal should be furnished to all those that want to take it, and all who take it should pay for it, and if any cannot pay for it the funds for those should be provided by private charity, so that every meal should be paid for.

Q. What would be the ultimate result of giving meals even at cost? I was told by Miss Kittridge, who is connected with the Lunch Associations, the other day, that a difference of 1½ or 2 cents per meal would be more than the parents could afford.

A. I do not think this would interfere in any way with the general problem. My preference is that the school itself should furnish the meal at cost. I do not particularly object to the meal being furnished by others, but I think it would be better if the school would do this. I am more interested in the children getting food and good food and the worth of their money rather than I am in just who does it.

Q. Can the evils of congestion of population be alleviated or even mitigated more than temporarily by public or private charity, or are the landlords, the tenement sweeter, the employers and those interested in immigration steamship lines, the real and permanent beneficiaries of such relief?

A. No. The question of distribution of population is not one to be settled by charity. Charity has some effect on it, but only in a small way.

Q. We asked a doctor connected with a charitable association why poor people did not move to the country, and he said they always answered him when he asked this question that if they moved to the country they would not receive any help from the charitable institutions.

Mr. Folks: I think congestion is such that it has to be met by other things than charity, by transportation, by ordinances as to where factories are allowed to be, etc., where the work is to be done, and while charity enters into it, of course, it is only in a very small way and is but a very small part of the congestion question in my judgment.

Q. Should New York City adopt the policy of some foreign cities and provide large farms with small industries, homes, etc., for its citizens who cannot maintain a decent standard in congested quarters with high land values, and train them on to self-support there?

A. I should not think so. I think the City would be making a mistake to do this, to provide large farms and try to train them to be self-supporting there. I think it would be more likely to train them to be dependent. I think the question of trade teaching should be handled as an educational matter entirely and entirely divorced from the question of charitable support. I think we should go further than we do in our educational institutions; we should be teaching children more manual training rather than so much drawing and art, etc. The only way for a boy to get a first-class manual training is for him to be so bad that he has to be sent

to a reformatory. I think this manual training is absolutely necessary with the highest standard of practical education, and should be available for all children.

Q. What would you do with the adults that have no training in any particular line, that is, the unskilled workmen of this City, of which there are 10,000 out of work in this City to-day?

A. I should question your fact, unless in exceptional times. I should think there is, as a rule, a great deal of work for unskilled workmen in New York City, and always likely to be, as they are always digging subways, foundations, etc., and we always have a great deal of that sort of work to do. We should have classes to train men how to work in public schools if I had anything to do about it. I think it is a misconception if you mean to imply that there are as a rule a large number of able-bodied men who are willing to work and cannot get it and thus become the objects of charity. I have not had much of any success in discovering in the almshouses people who are able to do any work; they are all pretty well maimed that are there; the able-bodied ones are not there; I did not discover any considerable capacity for labor there. I think those who are in the almshouse or such places are pretty well down and out in the physical sense. There are exceptional times, however, when the demand for work for able-bodied men is urgent and we have no sufficient provision to meet it.

Q. What do you think of the question of giving privileges to sell fruits, papers, etc., on the streets and stands to people who are unable to do hard manual labor?

A. I think well of that and also of making a ruling as to age for boys for messengers, etc., so that men would have to be employed. I think there is a good deal of work done by children that should and could be done by adults who cannot do other and heavier work.

Q. At what age would you permit children to go to work in the private industries?

A. At such an age that there would not be any children there at all.

Q. Don't the 16-year age law apply now in the day time?

A. Yes, I believe so, and the 21 for the night work for messenger boys, and while you may think this somewhat of a hardship on a number of children that may have to work, I believe it would be working a benefit for a large number.

Q. If relief to immigrants in congested districts increases congestion, should legislation be enacted requiring private charities to report all relief given by them and making the application for such relief cause for deportation, or at least application a determined number of times?

A. While I should question the premises and therefore throw out the conclusions so as to speak, I do not think that relieving immigrants in congested districts increases congestion if properly done or given. Therefore, I should not favor legislation of this kind. I should favor the power of inspection of their work by the State. I would not make the application for such relief a cause for deportation; I would not favor that. I would simply force them to live in conditions that are sanitary and in accordance with proper standards for health, and if you are helping these people you can force them to do these things, because if you are helping them you can give them to understand that you will do so only if they comply with these conditions and that they move into healthier quarters, and that you will help them to move into such quarters and remain in such quarters. Charity is expensive when well done and the question of congestion must be handled separately from the question of charity. I would not continue to allow them to live in such rooms as you say many of them are living in to-day. I would forbid the occupancy of such rooms as breed tuberculosis.

In regard to the immigrant, I should not treat him differently from anybody else, because I think he is as well able to support himself as anybody else. I do think that immigrants are a whole lot better able to take care of themselves than we think they are. We excuse ourselves for all kinds of improper conditions that ought not to continue, by saying that we have so many immigrants here, but I do not think this is any excuse at all.

Q. What would you do with the people that do not earn enough to maintain the standard?

A. I think they can maintain the standard of living and the immigrant is not so much a cause of worry as we think he is.

Q. You mean to say that an unskilled worker in this City can maintain the standard and get work by cutting wages?

A. That is a little beyond my depth, yet generally I would be inclined to answer in the affirmative, that he can get work, as there is lots of work to be done here as a rule. I am not speaking of exceptional conditions when there is much unemployment, but of what seems to me the ordinary conditions.

Chairman Callaghan: My experience is that the foreigner has more work than the native.

Secretary: Do you think there is plenty of work to go around?

Mr. Flynn: No, I do not think there is work enough to go around, and an unskilled laborer only makes about \$1.50 per day, and he cannot maintain a family on that, and they cannot get the work unless they work for starvation wages. Labor is a commodity just the same as potatoes, when plentiful it is cheap, when scarce it is high. The foreman of a factory in New England told me once that it was the unemployed that regulated the price of wages.

C. Statement Submitted by Mrs. Florence Kelley, Secretary of the National Consumers' League.

The whole administration of the charities in New York City, public and private, tends to produce congestion of population. The City gives charities the use of valuable property which is exempt from taxation and these institutions keep their inmates in these congested districts until they get the increase of these valuable properties and the City by its present policy puts a premium on congestion.

Children should be in the country and the City should not pay any money for the children who are being cared for in the City.

Whenever the Board of Estimate and Apportionment grants money for charitable institutions in the City it should be on conditions that their Board of Managers should take active steps to remove from the City to the country within the next year. Some institutions train their inmates now in needle trades, which are congested trades. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment, however, has promised to investigate the result of giving municipal money to institutions in congested districts. The Hebrew Orphan Asylum now occupies \$1,000,000 worth of tax exempt land. They train children, however, only for the congested life in the great City. The City permits the institution to get the increase in the value of the land.

Alderman Callaghan: How many have been removed from the City?

Mrs. Kelley: It is not definitely known.

Alderman Callaghan: What brings the child back into the City?

Mrs. Kelley: The fact that the families live in the congested districts where the charitable societies pay their rent.

Alderman Callaghan: Why do charities do this?

Mrs. Kelley: Because if the family stays where the congestion is worst it can get work from the sweated districts at low pay. This tends to keep families in congested districts, otherwise they would go into less congested districts and healthier parts of the City.

Private charitable societies are creating congestion in its worst form by assisting people to remain in congested districts.

Alderman Callaghan: Should the City establish its own employment bureau?

Mrs. Kelley: Yes, and it should run it free as every city and State should, and as is done in Germany.

Alderman Callaghan: Would you abolish private employment agencies?

Mrs. Kelley: If the City conducts good employment agencies this will result in driving out private agencies.

Alderman Callaghan: Do you think that an effort should be made to have the immigration law amended so that those who are in receipt of public as well as private charity two or three times after having been here a certain time should be subject to deportation?

Mrs. Kelley: It seems hardly human to return to the Pale of Russia people who have been driven out by the persecutions in that country.

The Secretary: Do you think, however, that the fact that those families apply for relief frequently would justify the City in determining their location and in exercising further control?

Mrs. Kelley: That seems entirely reasonable.

D. Statement by B. Ogden Chisolm, Chairman Corlears District Committee, Charity Organization Society.

At a recent meeting of the Corlears District Committee of the Charity Organization Society, the question of the high rents paid by the Italians was considered. The Committee discussed this subject at some length, especially the phase of it which brought out the facts that frequently so much rent was paid from the earnings of the breadwinner as to leave an insufficient amount for the purchase of the necessary food. Believing that you are desirous of obtaining information gathered by experts on the subject which your Commission is investigating, I was requested, as Chairman of the District Committee, to furnish some facts which might be of interest to you.

Roughly speaking, there are 81,140 Italians in the section east of Broadway and south of Houston street. These came largely from the southern part of Italy, from Sicily and the Neapolitan section, and live in three districts:

First.—West of the Bowery from Houston street to Park row, and up the river front to Pike street.

Second.—In the district east of the Bowery from Houston to Canal street, bounded on the east by Allen street.

Third.—A rapidly growing section along the water front, north of Grand street, containing at present about 8,000 individuals.

The contention is that the rents are large and that as a result the food supply for adults and children is insufficient for growth and efficient work. In many cases the families are forced for part of the year to become the recipients of private or public charity. This can be substantiated by the following facts gathered by workers living in the district, having expert knowledge of hundreds of Italian families.

Wages.—The majority of the families live in two or three-room tenements, paying \$9 to \$16, the average being about \$12.50 per month. The rent per room is about \$5, with unsatisfactory toilet and water facilities. The wages are very largely those of a day laborer—from \$1 to \$1.75 a day. The men work as street cleaners, tailors, shoe-makers, barbers and operators in tobacco. The girls and boys are forced to work early and are employed largely in factories where the wages range from \$2.50 to \$6 per week. As you doubtless know, a great number of the women are forced to do home work. This is characteristic of the whole section. They carry work to their homes where the workers find the conditions unsatisfactory, and the pay shockingly inadequate. Many of these tenements where such home work is done under unsanitary conditions are unknown to the inspectors.

Food.—A careful investigation was made of the kinds of foods used by these families and in the majority of cases it was found that the diet was unsatisfactory for this Northern climate, consisting largely of vegetables, fish and bread, with little meat. Inquiry was made of the amount of food per individual and without exception the person gathering the statistics answered that the amount was insufficient for the growth of children and for satisfactory work on the part of adults.

Many little children were suffering from malnutrition and many school children were found during the winter months when work was slack to be insufficiently nourished, and charitable and social workers have found it necessary for several years to render, during these winter months, a steadily increasing amount of private and public charity to such families. The interpretation of these facts seems to be that the amount of money spent for rent left an entirely inadequate amount for food, clothing and protection against the cold.

It was further ascertained that the Italians spend a very small amount for amusements and that the money earned is used to an unusual degree in meeting necessary expenses of life.

It has been further discovered that the vitality of school children of the Italian races in this part of the City is less than that of children of other races and of children in other parts of the City, and that largely because of the demands of the home boys and girls were forced to work as soon as their working papers could be obtained.

The chief object of this communication is to emphasize the various conditions relating to the home, and we believe that it should lie within the power of your Commission to remedy them in some way.

Our suggestions are as follows:

First.—That in many of the old houses for which the tenants pay ample rents, the owners should be compelled to improve them and make the sanitary arrangements satisfactory and furnish such apartments with a ready supply of water.

Second.—That some plan might be worked out by your Commission for the more regular equalization of work among the various classes so that the employment may spread over the entire year, which it does not seem to do at present, every one being overworked during the rush season, and there being much idleness during the off season.

Third.—That the building of lofts containing various kinds of manufactures employing Italian men and women be suspended in the crowded districts on the east side and that further building of this kind be confined to the newer parts of the City, so that the working classes will be encouraged to establish themselves in these outlying districts.

E. Statement of W. Frank Persons, Superintendent of the Charity Organization Society of The City of New York, to the Committee on Charities.

The Secretary: Does the Charity Organization Society send to the country or elsewhere outside of the City dependent families who could be made self-supporting by such removal to places where there is available work?

Mr. Persons: The Charity Organization Society finds it relatively difficult to move dependent families to the country or elsewhere outside of the City. This can seldom be done unless the family can be sent to neighborhoods in which relatives reside or close friends who are willing to give assurance that the family will not become dependent in its new home.

A majority of the important relief agencies throughout the country and many public relief officers have signed an agreement binding them not to transport a dependent family from one community to another without advance assurance that the family will not thereby be made dependent upon the charity of the community to which it goes. A just regard for the future welfare of the family, irrespective of the interests of other communities, does not permit the society to send such families beyond its jurisdiction and oversight without adequate assurance that the change will be for their distinct advantage.

There is some demand for the services of married couples on farms, but this is limited usually to those who have an actual experience in such work; naturally there are few such families in this City known to charitable agencies.

Sickness exists on the part of one or more members in approximately two-thirds of all the families under the care of this society. Until health is restored, the family must be kept within reach of hospital or medical care.

The demand for unskilled labor outside the City, for instance, on railroad construction, is usually for men who can live in the construction camps. Men who accept such employment are not able to take their families with them. In the nature of the case such work is temporary.

All these conditions tend to prevent men with families removing their homes from the City, even though they accept such work. Homeless men or single men are placed in such employment outside of New York City much more frequently. In July of this year, 166 single men were placed in permanent work; in June, 92; in May, 105; in April, 95, by the Joint Application Bureau.

Any successful effort to secure the permanent removal of dependent families from the City to the country requires continuing oversight after the change of residence has been made. There must be special organization and equipment for such work. It is attended necessarily with large expenditures for transportation, administrative expenses and the relief needed until permanent self-support is assured.

The Industrial Removal Office, 174 Second avenue, was established in 1900 to relieve the congestion in Jewish quarters in New York City and to divert Jewish immigrants from the large sea ports of the Atlantic Ocean to the interior. In eight years, 46,513 persons have been sent by this agency to over 1,000 towns and cities throughout the United States. All expenses were provided by the office, no charge being made for the beneficiaries.

The Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, 174 Second avenue, was organized in 1900 to assist and encourage Jewish immigrants to become farmers. This agency helps its beneficiaries to find suitable farms and grants loans on easy terms and at a low rate of interest toward the purchase of farms and for equipment. It has aided nearly 1,300 Jewish farmers in 24 States and in Canada, with loans aggregating over \$600,000.

The Baron de Hirsch Fund, 43 Exchange place, Room 705, was organized in 1891 for the benefit of Russian, Roumanian and Galician immigrants who have been in this country not longer than two years. Its purpose is to Americanize and assimilate the immigrants with the masses by teaching them to become good citizens and to prevent, by all proper means, their congregating in large cities.

The North American Civic League for immigrants was organized in Boston about two years ago. The New York Committee of the League had headquarters at 32 East 22d street. The Committee proposes to undertake educational work, to study questions of transportation, the distribution of immigrants, to secure desirable legislation, and to carry out the recommendations of the Commission on Immigration of the State of New York, which was appointed by Governor Hughes in 1908.

While it is doubtless of great advantage to the families concerned to remove them from congested districts to localities in which there are cheap rents, abundant labor, and relatively good wages, this effort alone will not solve the problem of congestion in New York City. The number so removed must ever be small in relation to the whole number residing in such localities. Their removal does not

prevent other families moving into the same congested quarters to take their places.

The Secretary: If the City should enforce the present law as to overcrowding, would it not drive many people below the dependent line; that is, if they were obliged to pay for twice as many feet of floor space and if they were already on the verge of dependency?

Mr. Persons: I can foresee no other result assuming that the expenses of living are increased without a corresponding increase in the income of the family.

Alderman Campbell: Does the Charity Organization Society receive requests for men to work on large construction projects on railroads?

Mr. Persons: So far as I know such requests have never been addressed to the society, and if they were it would be difficult, as I have stated above, to send married men either with or without their families to take this kind of employment.

F. Statement by Mrs. William Einstein, President Widowed Mothers' Fund Association, New York City.

The manner in which private charity in New York (and New York is mainly typical of other States), had handled the problem of assisting the widow, fills, in my opinion, one of the blackest pages in the history of philanthropic endeavor.

Charity organizations dispose of the widow with children in this wise: If the woman is strong enough to work, she must furnish the main support of the family and supplementary relief is given. If what she earns and the relief given prove insufficient, commitment of the younger children has been advised by the relief agency. When the woman breaks down from overwork, the society "helps" her to place her other children in institutions. The mother stays with friends or in a hospital until she recovers her strength; then, having only herself to provide for, no relief is deemed necessary, and she is left to shift for herself.

The records show that in the vast majority of instances the woman is obliged to spend the larger part of the day or night scrubbing floors, doing washing, or working in a factory—doing anything but mothering her children, who must take care of themselves usually upon the street.

At the Conference of Charities last spring, the superintendent of one of our most efficient orphan asylums, submitted the results of a very comprehensive study of dependent families of widows being supported by three important charitable organizations in New York City.

"These figures indicate that those pensioned (meaning widows) are not being adequately supported; that they are living in quarters congested altogether beyond the dictates of health, morality and decency, that they are being compelled to eke out a living far inferior to that required by normal standards. The amount of relief given beyond the earnings of mothers and children is, in the cases assisted only by the private relief society, barely sufficient to cover rent, and in other cases where co-operative efforts prevail, the amount of relief is very meagre, compared with the average size of the family."

A fitting climax to the statement of the facts quoted in the opinion of Mr. Adolph Lewisohn, President of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, uttered at the Washington Conference, one of the organizations involved in the comprehensive study above mentioned.

"The experience of philanthropic societies throughout the United States," said Mr. Lewisohn, "is convincing that in the case of widowed mothers, if the mothers were given ample subsidy, there would be no necessity whatever of placing their children either in institutions or foster homes. In this we have an exceptionally simple solution of the children problem by caring for the children, not in institutions, not in foster homes, but with their own mothers, who can give them the parental love and the parental attention whose value is incalculable and which cannot be obtained for them in any other way."

The failure of private charity to cope with the situation is forcibly summed up by Mr. Robert W. Heberd at a recent hearing of the New York Commission on Congestion: "Private charities claimed some time ago that outdoor public relief in New York City was a bad thing, detrimental to the public interest, and secured its abolition, claiming that they could meet the needs. It would be better for private charities to come out now and say that they are not fulfilling the bill in this respect." Mr. Heberd adds the significant remark: "The policy of giving inadequate relief by private charities tends to keep people in congested districts."

In contrast with the conditions obtained in this country, it may not be amiss to note how European countries have recognized the special needs of the widowed mother and what is being done to relieve them.

In some of the cantons of Switzerland Miss Jane Addams stated the method of relieving the widowed mother with children eliminates every hint of dependency and

makes "pauperizing" impossible. Every child of a widow, who is of school age, at the end of a successful week in school, receives a scholarship from the Canton. The money is given as a scholarship and the child takes it home to its mother, not because he is the recipient of charity, but because the law-givers of Switzerland having found it to the advantage of the state that a child should go to school when he is under fourteen years of age, quite as much as it is to the interest of the state that a child after a certain age should be at work.

In Berne, children are boarded with their widowed mothers; strict supervision is kept, and if the children are found to be ill-treated or neglected, the parent may be sent to the penal workhouse.

In Zurich, the municipality has organized a regular bureau to watch over poor school children and see that they are well cared for. If a widow has more children than she can support, her rent is paid, bread and milk bill, too, and, she receives presents of food and clothing. All this without being placed on the pauper list, nor does the mother feel that she is the recipient of charity.

Australia has derived a very safe and sane plan for the relief of fatherless children who have mothers living. The State Charities Department boards the children with the mother, paying her a certain sum for each child. To properly safeguard the children from possible mismanagement the mother is placed under the care of local ladies' visiting committees, composed of groups of volunteer workers or friendly visitors, and is subject to the same regulation and strict supervision as are provided for the protection of children boarded out with strangers.

There is no fear of pauperizing in Australia because the care of the children of widows, in fact, of all dependent children, has come to be regarded as educational rather than as charitable. This is in line with the trend of modern philanthropy, being wholly preventional in character.

In Vienna the Poor Board allows the widow with more than one child 6 to 10 kronin per week for each offspring.

Even little Denmark has kept pace with the times. From public funds relief is granted to widows from \$14 to \$24 per month, quite an adequate allowance when we consider the purchasing power of money in that country. In the case of widows of railroad employees, the government, which controls the roads, allows two-thirds of the husband's salary during her life.

In Germany industrial accident insurance, which is carried on mutually by the employers, by the workman, and the funds of the empire, has proved a most effective way of insuring the mother against dependency when the breadwinner is taken from the home. Hundreds of thousands of children have been provided for without the least taint of charity.

In each of these countries the state has presumably realized that the destitute widow with small children presented a problem that was too big and too important to abandon to the chance of private charity.

We can no longer neglect *the crying need of the children*, was the *keynote* of the Children's Conference in Washington. The *keynote* of the structure we are trying to erect is *the crying need of our widowed mothers*. To keep the home intact and avoid commitment is our policy. Every family in our charge is granted a sufficient allowance to permit the mother to stay at home and devote herself to the care of her children. The relief is also permanent, that is, until one or more of the children can support the family. Our work is *boarding in* children with their mothers instead of *boarding out* children with foster mothers. We endeavor to raise the standard of living by ample subsidy, by removal to less congested districts and into more commodious and better appointed homes, by elimination of lodgers, and by expert and friendly advice we lead them to a better and more intelligent ordering of their lives. In the case of families having a small income, the association supplies the difference between the rating of its standard of proper housing and feeding and the amount the family can earn in its handicapped condition.

To save itself from bankruptcy, the private relief society must ultimately admit that it is incapable of coping with the situation. Then we shall have to choose between the barbarous, merciless breaking up of good families and the lawful intervention of the State. But it cannot be denied that the *home* and not the *orphan asylum* is the *foundation of society*, that its *own* mother and not the *foster* mother can be of most service to the child in its development. The most precious of our natural resources, *the family*, is the *fundamental* social institution, and the State, therefore, is the logical and the only competent and adequate agency to aid the widowed mother in bringing up her children.

In 1897 a bill was introduced in the New York legislature authorizing the Comptroller to pay for the maintenance of children of mothers compelled by poverty to demand their commitment, the money to be transmitted to the woman through the

agency of a well-known children's society. The bill was violently opposed by private charity officials, as some of you may remember, but it is noteworthy that the vigorous objections then raised were against the *terms* of the proposed statute which was admittedly objectionable, and not against the principle involved.

The State Charities Aid Association in its resolutions condemning this bill concluded thus:

"Resolved, That we hereby desire to place on record our convictions, that children should not be committed to institutions for the sole reason that their parents are destitute, except as a last resort, and that cases of hardship should be obviated so far as possible through a more efficient co-operation between private relief-giving charities and committing authorities and not through outdoor relief."

Causes of Poverty.

Since poverty is recognized as a cause of congestion and room-crowding, it seems appropriate to study some of the causes of poverty. Dr. Edward T. Devine, General Secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society, in studying the causes of poverty, which has resulted in application for relief to their society by 5,000 families, gives the following statement regarding the disabilities existing in these families. He states, moreover, "these are, in the main, American families, either by birth or long residence; they are not, therefore, as a body, laboring under the disadvantage of recent arrival in the country, and in this respect they differ from some of the other groups of dependent families in New York City."

The Principal Disabilities Present in Five Thousand Families in New York City Under the Charge of the New York Charity Organization Society.

Disabilities.	Number of Individuals Affected.	Families Number.	Per Cent.	
1 Unemployed	4,424	3,458	69.16	Based on Cases Studied.
2 Overcrowding	2,014	44.68	
3 Widowhood	1,472	29.44	
4 Chronic physical disability, other than tuberculosis or rheumatism	1,603	1,365	27.30	
5 Temporary physical disability, other than accident or childbirth.....	1,158	984	19.68	
6 More than three children under fourteen	944	18.88	
7 Intemperance	1,000	833	16.66	
8 Less than 5 years in New York City	814	16.28	
9 Tuberculosis	675	619	12.38	
10 Desertion and persistent non-sup- port	606	12.12	
11 Head of family sixty years old, or more	599	11.98	
12 Laziness, shiftlessness, etc.....	667	588	11.76	
13 Childbirth	363	363	7.24	
14 Rheumatism	359	347	6.94	
15 Immorality	337	256	5.12	
16 Mental disease, defect or deficiency	267	248	4.96	
17 Cruelty, abuse, etc.....	229	221	2.42	
18 Accident	201	198	3.96	
19 Untruthfulness, unreliability	210	194	3.88	
20 Criminal record	161	151	3.02	
21 Violent or irritable temper, etc....	148	140	2.80	
22 Waywardness of children.....	160	129	2.58	
23 Disposition to beg.....	134	117	2.34	
24 Child labor (generally not illegal).	45	42	0.84	
25 Gambling	22	22	0.44	

Overcrowding.

According to the standard we have adopted, more than one and one-half persons to a room, we must assume that none of our 539 single men and women, each of whom has at least one room, is overcrowded, while twenty-five per cent. of the 867 families consisting of two persons, often a man and a wife, or a mother and child, in a furnished room, are overcrowded. In the case of these two groups, single persons living alone and two persons in a furnished room, the standard is of comparatively

little value. There are sufficient serious objections to the furnished room dwelling, but excessive overcrowding is, perhaps, not especially conspicuous among them. After we reach the families with three members, however, we find a steady increase of overcrowding, as is to be expected with the increase of the size of families, as families of five members are overcrowded in a larger proportion of instances than families of six. Nearly all of the families with eight, nine or ten members are overcrowded according to our standard, and all of these with more than this number, with a single exception of a family of fourteen occupying ten rooms.

The Charity Organization Society states that on November 1, 1909, there was sickness in 713, over one-half of the 1,376 families in their charge.

UNITED HEBREW CHARITIES.

The United Hebrew Charities gives the following as the primary causes of application at the time first application was made during the fiscal year ending September 30, 1910:

Causes of Distress.

Sickness (exclusive of tuberculosis).....	2,221
Tuberculosis	1,073
Unemployment	1,348
Insufficient earnings	767
Non-support	7
Widowhood	973
Desertion	708
Old Age	339
Accident	128
Imprisonment	87
Mental Defects	39
All others	1,593

Of these ("all others") 1,593 cases, 594 were not cases of distress, but cases in which returns were made by the applicants on loans previously granted to them.

The following brief summary of the work of the United Hebrew Charities for the year ended September 30, 1910, is very significant:

To 929 widows having 1,579 children under 14 years of age.....	\$66,930 00
To 526 families in which tuberculosis was cause of distress.....	32,575 00
To 2,760 families whose distress was due to sickness, old age, accident or unemployment	124,044 00
For clothing, coal, medical supplies, furniture, transportation, etc.....	25,035 00
To help people become self-supporting.....	9,991 00

Total, 4,235 families received..... \$258,575 00

All this is exclusive of work done by constituent sisterhoods, who aided 1,420 more families, among whom they distributed about \$100,000, of which amount subsidies from the United Hebrew Charities aggregated \$26,025; total disbursed by United Hebrew Charities in material relief, \$284,600.

We found permanent employment for 71 handicapped persons.

We made 65 women partly or wholly self-supporting through our splendidly equipped work room.

Administration expense was 14 per cent. of the total disbursements less than one-half of the largest non-Jewish organizations doing similar work.

Number of families applying for aid to United Hebrew Charities for fiscal year ending September, 1910..... 9,283

Number of individuals represented in above..... 43,821

It will be noted that the Society itself gave in relief of various kinds total of \$284,600 to 4,235, or an average of \$6,720; while the constituent sisterhoods gave about \$74,000 to 1,420 more families, or an average of \$52.11.

The Society note that their administrative expenses were only 14 per cent. of the total disbursement, less than *one-half of the largest non-Jewish organization doing similar work.*

SUMMARY OF "THE DANISH POOR RELIEF SYSTEM" BY EDITH SELLERS. PREPARED FOR THE COMMITTEE ON CHARITIES OF THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION.

Administration.

In all Denmark, except Copenhagen, the administration of all poor relief, both old age as well as pauper, is vested in the local authorities to whom are attached paid officials and honorary officials.

In Copenhagen, with its population of about 500,000, the administration of poor

relief is entirely in the hands of paid officials and vested in a department presided over by the Third Section Burgomaster, appointed to office by the Municipal Council, subject to the veto of the king.

For poor law purposes the city is divided into twelve districts, arranged in three groups of four districts each. Each district is under the care of a District Superintendent, and a group is under that of a Group Inspector. Both the Superintendents and the Group Inspectors are always specially trained and devote all their time to their work. A Local or District Superintendent has nothing to do with old age relief, or the public charities, it is only pauper relief that he distributes.

The Group Inspector is directly responsible to the Burgomaster for the Poor Law administration of his four districts, he watches over the Superintendents and revises their accounts, and is chief of the Special Bureau that administers the Old Age Relief Law.

General Principles.

The fundamental principle of the Danish Poor Law Relief is that every destitute person has a right to relief, and almost equally fundamental principle is that those who require relief through no fault of their own should have better relief than those who through their own laziness, wastefulness, drunkenness or wantonness, are in need of relief, the former class are entitled to relief, the latter class are paupers.

The distinction is vital and obtains throughout the entire system of Danish relief.

Denmark prefers to spend money on warding off pauperism rather than on relieving paupers.

The most important features of the Danish Poor Relief System.

1. The classification of paupers.
2. The poorhouse.
3. The workhouse.
4. The penal workhouse.
5. The treatment of children.
6. The old age relief law.
7. The destitution test.
8. Outdoor pensioners.
9. Old age homes.

Every town or commune is primarily responsible for its own poor alone.

Pauper relief is regarded in Denmark not as a gift, but a loan, and the one receiving it becomes a debtor to the community. Any man who leaves his family unprovided for may, if they obtain relief, be treated as a pauper and sent to the workhouse, even if he has refused to apply for or accept relief. Persons in Denmark can be forced to go not only to a penal workhouse, but to an ordinary workhouse.

1. *The Classification of Paupers.*

The Poor Law Act of 1891 requires local authorities "to take measures to secure that destitute persons be not left without the necessities of life or, in case of illness, without proper treatment and nursing." They must house these persons, feed them, clothe them and tend them, unless they prefer to provide them with the money with which to do these things themselves, but the poor law authorities have practically a free hand to carry out their duty in their own way. They may not "farm" out the paupers nor send them to live in turn with each of the rate-payers.

The Poor Law authorities decide where a pauper should live, whether in his own district or another, or in a workhouse, and in which one of the three grades of the workhouse.

Even if the local authorities grant him out-relief he is under their control. If admitted as a pauper to the workhouse, he cannot go in and out, but may, under proper arrangements for appeal, be detained.

2. *The Poorhouse.*

The Poorhouse in Denmark is reserved for the respectable and those either old or incurably invalided, and as a convalescent home for the feeble. Widows with children are sometimes sent here also, but the disreputable are not permitted to be placed in the poorhouse, nor are imbeciles. The poorhouse at Copenhagen stands in a beautiful garden and has accommodations for 2,000 people, men living on one side of the house and women on the other, while twenty-four rooms are reserved for married couples, and a wing for incurables. There are three classes:

- (a) The very respectable, who have just missed ranking as pensioners.
- (b) The fairly respectable.
- (c) The third class who have been weighed in the balance and found wanting. This third class have no privileges or freedom, but can get promoted by their own good behavior, just as those who do not conduct themselves properly in the higher

classes are put into this third class. No one is obliged to work, but if they do work they are paid for it.

3. *The Workhouse.*

The workhouse is of two kinds. In one the inmates work on the land, in the other they are employed in workshops. In Denmark all paupers above eighteen (18) may be sent to a workhouse, and as a general rule if able-bodied are sent there. Even in these institutions a classification is made, and the better behaved secure recognition. The inmates are encouraged to look for work and are paid for work they do in the institution, but all are obliged to do something. In both classes of workhouses, that is in those to which the confirmed loafers as well as merely the paupers are sent, there are workshops of every kind, all carefully organized and managed by industrial experts, according to the most approved modern principles. Tailoring, shoemaking, carpentering, bookbinding, weaving, glass blowing, metal working and locksmiths' work are always carried on in the two workhouses in Copenhagen, as well as usually paper hanging, painting and building. (The system seems very similar to that of the Elmira Reformatory.)

4. *The Penal Workhouse.*

The penal workhouse is maintained primarily for the benefit of professional loafers, vagrants, etc., men and women alike. A penal workhouse is usually maintained jointly by several communes, and since 1891 they have succeeded in practically eliminating vagrancy. Even here the occupants are required to work productively and must keep half of what they earn until the time comes for them to leave the institution.

5. *Care of Children.*

The weakest part of the Danish poor law system is the fact that children are kept in some poorhouses temporarily until other arrangements are made for them. All children, however, who are supported by the community, whether living with their parents or not, are, until they are eighteen, under the direct guardianship of the authorities, who have the right to remove them, if necessary, from their parents. Many children are, however, relieved in their homes with their parents, and all others, where suitable homes can be found for them, are boarded out, if possible, with someone who keeps a cow. An interesting interchange of country and city children is obtained by the custom of sending thousands of workingmen's children from the cities down into the country during the summer, while during the winter the children of the hosts during the summer are sent into Copenhagen as the guests of parents whose children have been cared for by them during the summer. This is not under the poor law, however, and the railroads give free transportation to the children.

6. *The Old Age Relief Law.*

Denmark deals firmly with the young who will not work in order that it may deal justly, too, with the old age who have tried and done their best to support themselves, but have not been able to save even a competence. In the same session in which the Danish legislature passed the Poor Law Reform Bill enabling the authorities to deal sternly with the vagrant it passed also the Old Age Relief Bill, by which the aged respectable poor were removed once for all from the jurisdiction of the Poor Law and a special system of relief was instituted for their benefit.

"By this law, if a Danish subject who has completed his sixtieth year is 'unable' to provide himself or those dependent on him with the necessities of life or with proper treatment in case of illness, he may, if he choose, instead of applying for pauper relief, apply for old age relief. For this relief to be granted to him however:

(1) "He must not have been convicted of any crime, or of any transaction generally accounted dishonorable, in respect of which he has not received rehabilitation.

(2) "His poverty must not be the consequence of any action by which he, for the benefit of his children or others, has deprived himself of his means of subsistence, and it must not be caused by a disorderly or extravagant mode of life, or be in any way brought about by his own fault.

(3) "For the ten years preceding his application for old-age relief he must have had a fixed residence in the country; and during that time he must not have received pauper relief, or have been found guilty of vagrancy or begging.

(4) "Also, this clause, it must be noted, did not form part of the law in its original form; it was added to it in 1902, 'he must not have led a life such as to cause scandal, he must not have been convicted of drunkenness or of immorality.'

"In order to obtain old age relief, in fact, an applicant must prove that he belongs to the respectable poor class, and that his poverty is owing to his misfortune, not his fault. If in this he succeeds he takes rank as a pensioner; otherwise he falls under the jurisdiction of the Poor Law, and becomes a pauper. Thus the aged poor

in Denmark are now divided into two distinct classes, the pensioners and the paupers, the deserving and the undeserving; and the two classes are kept entirely apart."

When this law was passed in 1891 three-quarters of the workers in rural districts were earning less than \$120 a year.

In Copenhagen the administration of the Old Age Reform Law is in the hands of three Group Inspectors, each of whom has his own staff of assistant officials, and his own Bureau quite apart from the ordinary Poor Law Bureau.

The terms for granting this relief are quite strict. In 1892 the first year the law was in force, out of 5,339 applications for old age relief that were sent in 1,019 were refused, whereas in 1903, out of the 1,358 applications sent in, only 158 were rejected.

Any applicant living in a town whose claim to old-age relief is refused, has the right to appeal to the Minister of the Interior, if living in a rural commune to the Chairman of the County Council.

The Burgomaster, with the help of the Old Age Committee (composed of a Burgomaster, a member of the municipal Council and the three Group Inspectors), not only decide who shall receive old-age relief, but also what form it shall assume, for the law gives them latitude in this respect and stipulates that the relief granted may be given in money or in kind, as circumstances require, or consist in free admission to a suitable asylum or other establishment intended for the purpose. When applicants have become pensioners, the three inspectors become their guardians, and see that they conduct themselves properly, for if any of them, after receiving old age relief, commit any action which if committed before would have prevented receiving it, such as drinking or squandering their money, they forfeit rank as pensioners and become paupers. A man also forfeits rank as pensioner if, after he is granted old age relief he marries and in consequence requires more relief. In rural districts the administration of the old age relief law is under the control of the Chairman of the County Council, and in towns under that of the Minister of the Interior.

Form of Application for Old Age Relief.

Old-Age Relief.

No.

Schedule A. For Men and Unmarried Women.

Application for Old-Age Relief under the Law of April 9, 1891, to Commune of
Copenhagen, from
Full Name and Position.
Living at.
Born in Parish County.

The following questions must be answered as fully as possible; and certificates of identity and other documents procurable by the applicant in confirmation of the statements made, must be enclosed.

1. Has the applicant during the last ten years resided uninterruptedly in this country? And if so, where? And for how long in each place?

2. Has the applicant during the last ten years received any kind of pauper relief for himself, or his wife, his legitimate or illegitimate children, adopted children or step-children; and if he has, in what form? When was it given and by what commune?

3. Has the applicant during the last ten years been convicted of vagrancy or begging?

4. Has the applicant ever been convicted of any crime? If so, when and of what crime?

5. Which Commune does the applicant consider the Commune from which he is entitled relief?

6 The number of the members of the family, and the age of each member of the family.

Does the applicant live alone, or with relatives, or others? If with others, with whom?

Schedule B. For Widows and Divorced or Separated Wives does not differ materially from Schedule A.

8. (a) What is the occupation of the applicant, and also of the members of his family?

(b) The approximate total amount of the income of the applicant and of the members of his family for the last year?

(c) How much of this income is derived from a pension, or annual allowance, interests, legacies, real estate, gifts, or similar sources of income?

9. Has the applicant any prospect of aid from relatives or others? Or has he any expectation of any inheritance?

10. The property of the applicant? (Capital, real estate, right to yearly allowance, chattels, outstanding claims, etc., stating the approximate value.)

11. The debts of the applicant?

12. What was the applicant's house rent during the last year?

13. The cause of the applicant's poverty? Full information concerning the health of himself and his wife, and their capacity for work, etc.

14. What amount of relief does the applicant require, and in what form would he wish the relief to be given?

15. Other information which the applicant himself deems it necessary to give.

I hereby declare that to the best of my belief all the answers given to the above questions are correct and given without reservation, and in such a form as to be in accordance with the truth.

Date.

Signature.

Residence.

We, the undersigned, who are personally acquainted with the circumstances of the applicant, certify that his poverty is not the consequence of any action by which he, for the benefit of his children or others, has deprived himself of his means of subsistence; and that it has not been caused by a disorderly or extravagant mode of life, or been in any way brought about by his own fault.

Date.

Signatures.

Residences.

N. B.—That the relief which it may be necessary to grant the applicant before the question of his claim to old-age relief has been finally settled, will be considered as pauper relief should this claim be refused.

The first declaration is signed of course by the applicant himself, and the second by two rate-payers who know him personally, and are acquainted with his circumstances. Should the form when handed in be found to contain any false statement on the part of the applicant, he forfeits forever any claim he may have had to rank as a pensioner, and may be sent to prison for a fortnight. His witnesses, too, are punished, unless they can prove that they had good reasons for believing that the statements to which they testified were true.

7. *The Destitution Test.*

The Danish law provides that in order to obtain old-age relief an applicant must be "without the means of providing himself or those dependent on him, with the necessities of life, or with proper treatment in case of illness," and when the law first came into force certain jurists claimed that this meant that if he had any little savings he must spend them before relief could be given him.

The Minister of the Interior decided however that this would merely put a premium upon thriftlessness. In 1902 the law was amended so that for old-age relief the local authorities "must leave out of consideration any income or house accommodation he may possess from private sources up to the value of 100 kroner" (about \$29 a year), and they are also allowed if they deem it advisable to leave out of consideration any income he may have from an annuity, a legacy, a pension, or any dwelling accommodation which he may possess up to an equal amount. If he has received any pauper relief during the ten years that precede his application for old-age relief he is ineligible for such relief.

8. *Outdoor Pensioners.*

Although the law permits local authorities to determine whether old-age relief shall be given in money or kind, or consist in admission to some suitable asylum the law requires that the pension they give "shall be sufficient for the support of the person relieved and of his family and for their treatment in case of illness."

The custom is to give these adequate allowance or old-age pensions to such pensioners as are either strong enough to take care of themselves, or have relatives or friends, able and willing to take care of them. In each separate town or commune the local authorities determine what is "sufficient for the support of the person relieved"; this of course varies from town to town.

In Copenhagen, the average old-age pension is about \$47 for a married couple and \$38.25 for a single person, while in rural districts is respectively about \$30 and \$22.

In addition the pensioners receive in case of illness medical attendance, medicine and whatever else the doctor orders for them. Most of the pensioners, too, either have some supplementary income or are able to earn a little.

9. *Old-Age Homes.*

So long as pensioners are fairly vigorous they generally prefer to live in their own homes. When they are too feeble to do this however they have recourse to old-age homes. These are reserved exclusively for old-age pensioners, and no paupers are admitted on the principle stated by the Director of the Copenhagen Poor Department. "It is sheer waste of time and money trying to make decent old folk comfortable, if you shut them up with folk that are not decent."

The pensioners are taught to look upon these homes as their right, so long as they conduct themselves properly. Instead of great dormitories all the inmates sleep (in the Copenhagen home) in bedrooms accommodating two, three, five or a maximum of six persons, while the smoking rooms and sitting rooms are common property. Each married couple has a separate room. Their food is nutritious but simple and tasteful.

The institution is in the midst of a great garden.

Statistics.

On January 1, 1893, when the law had been in force one year, 30,957 persons were in receipt of old-age relief, and they had dependent on them chiefly wives—12,869 more, or a total of 43,826. On January 1, 1902, there were in all Denmark 44,118 pensioners, 6,593 belonged to Copenhagen, and 28,462 to rural communes. In 1891 the population of Denmark proper was 2,449,540, and approximately 1.8 per cent. of the total population, and 17.8 per cent. of the population above 60 were in receipt of old-age relief, or counting the dependents, nearly one-fourth of the population over 60 years of age, and about 2.1-2 per cent. of the total population.

The total cost of old-age relief in Denmark in 1901, counting administration as well as relief, was about \$1,534,150.

FOREIGN CITY FARM COLONIES.

In foreign countries Municipal Farm Colonies are usually a part of a system, there being several or at least one state colony and the city institutions related to these.

An important Labor Colony is the one conducted by London at Hollesley Bay, described by Mr. W. H. Beveridge.

"The first is the attempt to remove men altogether from the urban labor market by training for new occupations on the land. The most noteworthy example of this is the farm colony established by the London Unemployed Fund in February, 1905, at Hollesley Bay, in Suffolk. This colony, which has now been purchased by the Central Body for London, comprises a total area of 1,300 acres, 600 being arable, 250 heath and the residue pasture, woodland, etc., and has living and sleeping accommodations for nearly 350 persons. At its commencement three main objects were laid down:

- "1. The provision of special work for periods of exceptional distress.
- "2. The provision of more continuous work for men who are not only in exceptional need of work, but who either have already lived upon the land, or show a marked aptitude for country life.
- "3. The establishment of suitable men and families in agricultural or other rural industry, in various forms, e. g.:

"(a) Ordinary farm situations, preferably in districts where wages and conditions are good and where a movement towards small holdings, allotments, market gardening, co-operative farming, etc., is developing.

"(b) Market gardening or ordinary gardener's situations.

"(c) The establishment of small holdings in the neighborhood of the colony or elsewhere (either with or without some intervening period of service elsewhere under 'a' or 'b'). This will be the hope held out to the picked men on the colony.

"(d) Emigration."

In the administration of the colony, emphasis has been more and more laid on the third object and particularly on the establishment of men on co-operative small holdings. The Central Body has not, however, been able itself to establish small holdings, the Local Government Board having ruled that this was a purpose outside the scope of the Unemployed Workmen Act, and great difficulties have been experienced in placing the men elsewhere. "The settlement of men in ordinary farm situations, paragraph 3 (a), or in market gardening or ordinary gardener's situations, paragraph 3 (b), has proved in most cases impossible. Consequently, the only considerable outlet for the men trained at Hollesley Bay has been that mentioned in paragraph 3 (d), i. e., emigration." (Note, pp. 181 and 182.)

Statement of Number of Public and Private Societies and Organizations in New York City Dealing With Different Classes in 1907.

(Prepared by the New York Charity Organization Society.)

In 1908 the total number of societies in the City, including all those receiving state or municipal aid, was 2,868; in 1909, 2,566.

Classified List.	Manhattan and Bronx.	Bklyn and Queens.	Rich- mond.
Class I. Care and Relief of Needy Families in Their Homes—			
Div. 1. Relief by Employment.....	38	8	..
Div. 2. Feed, Fuel, Clothing and General Relief, including Transportation	116	59	1
Div. 3. Day Nurseries and Kindergartens.....	82	12	3
Div. 4. Fresh-Air Charities	80	9	3
Div. 5. Legal Aid and Advice.....	15	3	..
Div. 6. Relief for National Calamities.....	2
Div. 7. Relief for Foreigners.....	36	3	..
Div. 8. Special Relief for Various Classes, Callings, and Professions	30	3	..
Div. 9. Nursing and Care of the Sick in their homes....	54	1	1
Div. 10. Burials	10	1	1
Total.....	475	91	5
Class II. Relief for Destitute, Neglected and Delinquent Children—			
Div. 1. Asylums, Homes and Cheap Lodgings for Children	74	29	2
Div. 2. Children's Societies	10	4	1
Div. 3. Children's Courts, Probation Work and Reformatories for Children.....	9	3	..
Totals.....	93	36	3
Class III. Relief in Permanent and Temporary Homes for Adults—			
Div. 1. Municipal, State and National Home for Destitute Adults	16	1	1
Div. 2. Private Homes for Adults.....	39	13	2
Div. 3. Situations with Free Board, also with Free and Cheap Lodgings	60	18	2
Totals	115	29	5
Class IV. Relief for the Sick—			
Div. 1. General Hospitals	35	29	2
Div. 2. General Dispensaries	39	38	1
Div. 3. Special Hospitals, Dispensaries and Associations, also Homes for Convelescents.....	60	16	1
Div. 4. Hospitals and Homes for Incurables.....	12	4	..
Div. 5. Women's, Children's and Lying-in Hospitals and Women's and Children's Dispensaries.....	38	8	..
Div. 6. Training Schools, Homes and Agencies for Nurses	21	11	1
Div. 7. Visitation of and Diet and Aid for Sick in Institutions	7	1	2
Div. 8. Medical Colleges, Schools and Societies.....	33	15	..
Div. 9. Ambulances	14	16	1
Totals.....	259	122	8
Class V. Relief for the Defective—			
Div. 1. Relief, Homes, Asylums and Societies for the Blind	7	5	..

Classified List.	Manhattan and Bronx.	Bklyn. and Queens.	Rich- mond.
Div. 2. Relief, Homes, Asylums for Deaf Mutes.....	8	1	..
Div. 3. Relief for Cripples, including Hospitals, Homes and Societies	21	1	..
Div. 4. Relief, Asylums and Schools for Insane, Feeble- minded and Epileptic.....	16	5	..
Totals.....	57	12	..
Class VI. Treatment of Delinquent Adults—			
Div. 1. Reformatories for Men.....	4
Div. 2. Reformatories for Women.....	19	4	..
Div. 3. Probation Work, Prison Associations and So- cieties of Crime.....	12	3	..
Totals.....	35	7	..
Class VII. Preventive Social Work—			
Div. 1. Savings and Loans.....	49	3	1
Div. 2. Beneficial Societies	55	15	..
Div. 3. Education and Special Training.....	110	23	..
Div. 4. Improvement of Social Conditions.....	12	9	..
Div. 5. Settlements	41	12	..
Div. 6. Clubs	51	8	..
Div. 7. Libraries, Reading Rooms and Museums.....	33	10	1
Totals.....	311	80	2
Class VIII. Supervisory and Educational Work—			
Div. 1. State and Municipal Boards and Departments..	23	8	2
Div. 2. Private Associations for the Improvement of State and Municipal Institutions and Departments....	10	1	..
Div. 3. Conferences of Charities and Correction.....	4
Div. 4. Special Training in Social Work.....	2
Totals.....	39	9	2

There are also 653 churches of different denominations in Manhattan and The Bronx; 479 in Brooklyn and Queens and 68 in Richmond. In addition there are 167 Societies for Religious and Moral Work in Manhattan and The Bronx, 42 in Brooklyn and Queens and one in Richmond.

SUMMARY OF REPORT OF SCHOOL FEEDING MADE BY THE DEPARTMENT OF CHILD HYGIENE OF THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION.

The New York School Lunch Committee reports the following as a part of the results of an investigation of the home conditions of 262 children that have come under its observation: A large part of the children were adjudged to be suffering from malnutrition by a Medical Inspector of the Department of Health.

In 221 families, 21 mothers worked outside the home and were not at home to prepare the noon lunches. This represents 9.5 per cent. of the mothers. This corresponds fairly well with the result of another investigation made at School 51, where it was found that 200 or 10 per cent. of the children had no one at home to prepare a noon lunch for them and in consequence were getting their lunches on the street or in the small stores in the neighborhood of the school.

In 258 families there were 60 which had no prepared lunches at noon for the children, or 21.2 per cent. of the families. Of the families of 130 children taking the lunches at school, 48 or 38 per cent. had no lunches available for them at home.

The daily food supplied to the children was estimated approximately from data given by the parents or caretakers of the children. In 222 families 157 were supplying insufficient food. This represents 71 per cent. of the families under observation. Of 141 children taking the lunches at school, 108 or 77 per cent. had insufficient food at home. This estimate was also supported by noting that the children in this group fell below the weight gained by the children with sufficient food at home.

The use of tea and coffee among school children is the greatest dietary abuse. The following table shows the findings for 226 children.

	Per Cent.	
Tea or coffee once each day.....	131	58
Tea or coffee more than once each day.....	79	35
No tea or coffee.....	16	7

Another indication of the home conditions, casting some light upon the difficulties of the mothers in the matter of providing sufficient food for the children is found in the study of the room congestion as noted in the table following.

	Families.	Per Cent.
1 person or less per room.....	17	8
1 to 1.5 persons per room.....	47	22
1.5 to 2 persons per room.....	63	29
2 to 2.5 persons per room.....	39	18
2.5 to 3 persons per room.....	38	18
Over 3 persons per room.....	13	6
Total	217	

Taking \$825 as the necessary yearly income for a family of five to maintain itself in an adequate manner, the following table shows another reason for the malnutrition of the children under investigation. The included data represents only that which is complete, and no figures are included that do not represent the total earnings of the family as far as could be secured from the family.

	Families.	Per Cent.
Income over \$16 per week.....	53	36
Income under \$16 per week.....	93	64
Total	146	

Of 106 families, whose children were taking the lunches at school, there were 77 families or 75 per cent. whose income fell below the desired \$16 per week.

The 146 families fell into the following income groups:

	Families.	Per Cent.
Income over \$25.....	16	11
Income \$20 to \$25.....	19	13
Income \$15 to \$20.....	22	15
Income \$10 to \$15.....	51	35
Income \$8 to \$10.....	14	10
Income under \$8.....	24	16

Of the 106 families whose children took the lunches at school, 38 or 36 per cent. were in the \$10 to \$15 group; 11 or 10 per cent. were in the \$8 to \$10 group; 24 or 23 per cent. were in the under \$8 group.

The benefit of a single school lunch has often been questioned, but the investigation of the effect of such lunches upon the weight of the recipients shows very well the benefit to the children. While two groups of children of about equal size were under observation, the records were not as complete as desirable; the children had moved, remained subject to the observation such a short time or were absent too long to keep in the class for the period covered by the two observations of data, where measurements were required. For these reasons, one group who received lunches numbered 143, while the second group which received no lunches numbered 81, as far as the completed records were available. The numbers are not large, but the results of the examination are very suggestive of the value of the school lunches.

Table Showing the Degree of Underweight Among the Children Suffering from Malnutrition.

Age.	Number of Children	Average Weight, Pounds, Malnutrition Cases.	Average Weight, Pounds, Normal Children.	Number of Malnutrition Cases at or Above Average Normal Weight.
5 years.....	4	37.1	41	10
6 years.....	17	40.5	45	3
7 years.....	31	42.8	49	5
8 years.....	41	48.9	54	6
9 years.....	60	53.7	60	13
10 years.....	34	56.7	66	2
11 years.....	34	62.3	72	1
12 years.....	22	66.0	79	3
13 years.....	13	72.4	88	1
14 years.....	4	63.0	99	..
15 years.....	2	77.5	110	..
Total	262	44

Still in an investigation of 210 malnutrition cases, found that 175 had tea or coffee once a day and 25 had it two or three times a day.

Spargo reported that of 12,800 children in 16 schools, 2,950 or 23 per cent. went to school without breakfast or with merely bread with tea or coffee.

Dr. Lechstrecker found 9.32 per cent. of 10,707 children in New York Industrial Schools suffering from malnutrition. He noted that only 1,855 or 17.32 per cent. had an adequate breakfast.

The average cost for a family of five in the United States for alcohol, coffee, tea and cocoa for the years 1903-1907, was \$95.

Of 391 families studied by Chapin, only 25 per cent. used bottled milk and 66 per cent. used loose milk in all the income groups up to \$1,200.

Of 318 families, 243 or 76 per cent. made expenditures for alcoholic drinks at home; 125 or 39.3 per cent. showed an annual expense for this purpose of over \$30.

A study of typical families in Washington, D. C., showed that 25 per cent. of the total income is spent for bread and meat, and this amount is 60 per cent. of the entire food budget.

The general average of the families studied by Chapin showed that 8.3 per cent. of the yearly income was spent for sugar, tea, coffee and condiments, and 6.8 per cent. for alcoholic drinks. There was only 21.5 per cent. of the income spent for eggs, milk and cheese. There is little difficulty in understanding why 82 or 19.5 per cent. of Chapin's 218 families were found to be underfed.

Chapin found as the result of his investigation that there was a large amount of underfeeding among the families of all income groups.

	Families.	Per Cent. Underfed.
\$400 to \$600.....	25	76
\$600 to \$800.....	151	32
\$800 to \$900.....	73	22
\$900 to \$1,100.....	94	9
Over \$1,100	48	..

The above table shows the amount of underfeeding in the various income groups.

The New York Committee on Physical Welfare found 41 per cent. of malnutrition in the classes of children coming from families with an income of less than \$16 per week.

In New York City in 1906, of 78,401 children examined, 4,921 or 6.3 per cent. were suffering from malnutrition, sufficiently pronounced to be noticed by the inspector. In 1908, of 210,585 children, 5,923 or 2.8 per cent. were reported as cases of malnu-

trition. During the same year, in Manhattan, of 89,951 children, 3,678 or 4 per cent. were reported as suffering from malnutrition.

Washington, D. C., showed 727 ill-nourished children examined to be suffering from malnutrition.

The great various differences existing in the figures for malnutrition in different parts of the country are due to a variety of causes as personal equations of the examiners, different standards of living, and the fact that malnutrition is stated as a defect only when no other defect will account for the condition of the child. Many of the defects, asanemia, enlarged glands, etc., are also cases of malnutrition, but are not included in that column.

In an endeavor to ascertain the percentages of malnutrition in the schools supplying the children for the study on lunches, a special medical examiner looked over 957 children in Public School 21, and 1,094 children in Public School 51.

In the former he found 130 and in the latter 153 children with malnutrition, a total of 283 or 13.3 per cent of the 2,051 children under the close scrutiny of the examiner.

Superintendent Maxwell's 10th report states that 60 per cent. of defectives suffer from malnutrition.

The school lunches provide a means of off-setting the lack of proper nourishment at home. The amount of food units or calories supplied by the lunches is based upon an estimation of the average of the children at 10 years, and the estimation of the daily caloric needs of children of that age at 1,680 calories. The school lunch aims to supply at the minimum one-fourth of the day's caloric needs though it generally supplies over one-third and often one-half of the daily caloric needs of the child, as can be seen upon examining the menus provided with the statement of the caloric values attached.

A charge of 2 cents is made for each lunch provided.

In those cases where the parents cannot afford to pay for the lunch, the cost is met by relief societies or by private philanthropy. The City pays for the lunches provided to the children in the special classes for defectives.

The following is self-explanatory.

Public School 21, number of lunches served during 1909, 31,287 (23,235).

Public School 51, number of lunches served during 1909, 22,884 (23,235).

Public School 21, average daily attendance at the lunches, 162 (149).

Public School 51, average daily attendance at the lunches, 119 (121).

Public School 21, cost of food per capita, \$.0326.

Public School 51, cost of food per capita, \$.0242.

Public School 21, average cost of lunch served, \$.0429.

Public School 51, average cost of lunch served, \$.0489.

A previous table has called attention to the gain in weight of the children taking the lunches. At Bradford, England, the especially poor children were given three meals a day.

During the first two weeks the average gain of the children was one and one-fourth pounds. At Whitsuntide the children were at home for two weeks and during this period, when they were having only the meals at home they made an average loss of one pound.

The causative factors in malnutrition in children lie largely in the home. They are a complex, interwoven series of facts, each of which is important in completing the picture of malnutrition.

Poverty, alcoholism, poor hygiene, physical defects of children, lack of dietary training, extravagance in the purchase of foods, domestic waste, lack of maternal care, employment of the mothers outside the home, lack of training in cooking and household economics. The high cost of food to those who buy in small quantities is an added factor in the cases of the very poor families. The use of tea and coffee among children is a general factor in the causation of underfeeding.

1910.

Public School Luncheons, Financial Statement.

Periods covered by this report: September 13, 1909, to June 30, 1910; September 13, 1909, to June 29, 1910.

	P. S. 21.	P. S. 51.
Number of Days Lunch Provided.....	193	182
	Expenses.	Expenses.
Food Material	\$843 69	\$666 50
Wages of Cook and Services.....	384 25	348 70
Furnishings and Miscellaneous	114 86	94 19
	<hr/> \$1,342 80	<hr/> \$1,109 39

	Receipts.	Receipts.
Sales of Food Tickets	\$476 49	\$617 40
Sales of Penny Desserts.....	268 16	153 97
	<u>\$1,044 65</u>	<u>\$771 37</u>

Deficit for 193 Days.....	\$298 15	\$338 02
30 Checks Sold	25.883	20.580

Statistical Analysis.

	P. S. 21.	P. S. 51.
Total Paying Attendance (193 days)	24,187	14,088
Lunches for Services	2,702	2,304
Free Lunch for Needy—		
1. Malnutrition Cases	2,481	4,865
2. Just Needy Cases.....	1,917	1,627
Total number served	<u>31,287</u>	<u>22,884</u>

Daily Average Paying Attendance.....	125.32	73.4
Total Daily Average	162	119
Daily Average Expense.....	\$6.957	\$5.778
Daily Average Deficit.....	\$1.545	\$1.761

Average Cost per Lunch per Day.....	.0429	.0484
Average Income per Lunch per Day.....	.0334	.0337
Average Deficit per Lunch per Day.....	.0095	.0147

Cost of Food per Capita.....	.0326	.0242
Cost of Services per Capita.....	.01598	.0202
Cost of Furnishings and Miscellaneous.....	.0038	.0042
Free Tickets	\$131.94	\$194.76

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC SQUARES AND BUILDINGS OF THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION, ALDERMAN JAMES J. MULHEARN, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee have held three meetings and examined a number of witnesses. It was the Committee's intention to prepare a map showing in detail the specific location of existing public squares and buildings and to make suggestions as to the location of future public squares and buildings. In view of the fact, however, that the Committee have had no appropriation to make such a study and that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment plans to create shortly a Commission to make City plans for the City, the Committee wish merely to make certain general suggestions with reference to the decentralizing of the life of the City, and to point out the principles which in their judgment should govern the locating of New public squares and buildings. The creation of civic centres in various cities of this country and abroad has been increasingly recognized as an important part of the City plan. The most conspicuous illustration of such civic centres is the grouping of plans of the City of Cleveland, which recently created a Committee composed of three members, who have been given absolute power over the location of all public buildings. Their plans include the laying out of a mall, headed by the United States Post Office, the Custom Office and a new City Hall, while Buffalo has also been planning a civic center by grouping public buildings, as have also Chicago, Washington, Baltimore, St. Louis, Milwaukee, Minneapolis and many small cities of the country. The main features in this plan have been the groupings of these public buildings to ensure aesthetic and harmonious settings and convenience of access between the various public buildings, Federal, State and Municipal. Most of these cities, however, differ uniquely from New York City in that they have not the five distinct boroughs, each with a certain degree of home rule and independence of action, while in addition to the grouping of public buildings there has been made an effort in many of the cities to group around a common centre, public buildings other than administration buildings referred to such as school houses, libraries, and similar place of concourse. Many better parallels, however, for New York City are to be found in the cases of London, Paris, Berlin Vienna and Munich among the important cities of the world. Thus London has 27 boroughs, each with its own administrative building and other public buildings. Paris has in each arrondissement a small grouping of public buildings, while Berlin, Vienna and Munich, although boasting a splendid central group of public buildings such as the

Ringstrasse in Vienna and the Square in Munich, yet have the decentralizing influence of a large number of smaller groups of public buildings.

In the plan for Greater Berlin, by which it is proposed to enlarge the area of the city by about 461,000 acres, provision is made for these civic central points, each with its group of public administration buildings, and they are located in relation to the development of the city and the existing factory, business and commercial districts.

It is true that New York City has a unique situation since each of the boroughs is composed of small formerly independent political communities. With the enormous distances of the City, however, it is especially necessary that the City should provide a number of these buildings for local administrative purposes. The method of administration has, of course, an important bearing upon the question of civic centers and the location of public squares and buildings, since if there is a larger degree of local autonomy a larger part of the business with the City can be conducted in each of the boroughs than if it were necessary that a person wishing to attend to official business should come to Manhattan from all of the other boroughs of the City. The grouping, however, of public administration buildings will also have an important bearing upon the locating of business and the creation of shopping, office and commercial centers, so that the location of these centers should be determined very carefully before the projection of new lines of transit and in relation to the existing development of the boroughs. In large boroughs like Queens and Brooklyn it would seem advisable to have sub-stations of various departments such as the Department of Health, in several sections of the borough and avoid the time inevitably spent in coming to and from these centres.

The Committee feel preeminently the importance of a definite city plan in which these public squares and buildings shall be provided for and recognize that such a plan must be made by a central governing body of the city instead of following any whims or local interests or prejudices. The only recommendations therefore that your Committee have to make are as follows:

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC SQUARES AND BUILDINGS.

First—That a city plan be prepared for New York City by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment Engineers with such help as they shall require, at the earliest possible moment; such plans to be mandatory upon the City.

Second—That there shall be in each Borough at least one large place reserved for the Public Administration Buildings of the Borough, such as Court House, Borough Hall, Board of Health and other departmental offices of the various City Departments, which shall be reasonably accessible to all the Boroughs and especially to the existing commercial, financial and business districts.

Third—That in the larger Boroughs there should be a series of sub-civic centres and groupings of Administration Buildings.

Fourth—That there should be in each Borough an effort to group the public buildings, such as school houses, libraries and similar buildings, with the exception of fire stations, so far as possible in a park or with open ground around so as to give adequate setting and stimulate local interest and pride.

Fifth—Although the Committee recognize that provisions for Municipal Recreation Play Centres with enclosed buildings is not immediately feasible, they feel that the City before long will undertake such provisions and urge that they should be made part of this centre.

Sixth—The Committee endorse the principle of excess condemnation of land for acquiring sites for these buildings in outlying Boroughs, although questioning the feasibility and practicability of such excess condemnation where land values are at present extremely high. Not only may this lead to the location of new settlements, but in some cases it will provide for the cost of improvements.

Eighth—The Committee recommend that all developing companies and individuals should be compelled to plot out their land in accordance with the City map.

Ninth—The Committee recognize that the Mayor's Art Commission has certain authority in the City, but call attention to the fact that they can merely withhold their approval from any public building on public land and that the City has in the past in several instances secured sites for public buildings and then have been compelled to abandon them because the plans were not approved by the Mayor's Art Commission.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON CRIME AND DELINQUENCY OF THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION, ALDERMAN W. AUGUSTUS SHIPLEY, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee has held three meetings and examined six witnesses. Various investigations have been suggested to them as to the bearing of the question of relations between crime and delinquency and congestion and room overcrowding. It has

been impossible, with the means and time at their command, to make such investigations as the importance of the subject requires, but they nevertheless feel, after hearing the evidence presented, that more important than a study of the police records and the statistics of the Court of General Sessions and the Special Sessions, as to the last address given by those convicted of the various crimes, would be a study of the home conditions of those convicted of crime and juvenile delinquency.

THE DOUBLE PROBLEM.

The Committee have had a double problem to investigate—that of crime and the relation between so-called criminals over 16 years of age, and that of delinquency, or the shortcomings or moral failings of juveniles under 16 years of age, and congestion and room overcrowding. They have studied this question from the point of view of the home surroundings, as known of both classes of so-called criminals and juvenile delinquents.

THE CITY'S CRIME AS SERIOUS AS THE CRIMINAL'S CRIME.

Nearly every witness who has appeared before the Committee has emphasized that the home surroundings of both the criminal and juvenile delinquents and the bad housing conditions, the lack of parks and playgrounds, the poverty and sickness of the families, have been among the most important, if not the most important, factors in fostering and producing immoral conduct of both criminals and delinquents.

The Committee feel very strongly, therefore, that the City is equally as guilty as any criminal who has been arraigned in Special Sessions and decidedly more so than any juvenile delinquent, because the City has permitted conditions to continue throughout many sections of the City which are largely responsible for the criminality of the children and often of the adults. These conditions the City could have and should have prevented.

Mr. Orlando F. Lewis, Secretary of the Prison Association of New York City, who appeared before the Committee, stated that 60 per cent. of the men sent to Elmira are from New York City, and most of them from the congested districts, and that although one cannot state definitely that this is due to congestion, it is true that the conditions of congestion and overcrowding predispose to crime. Mr. Lewis stated that the result of the present methods of dealing with vagrants and drunkards in New York City is not calculated to reduce the number of vagrants. The principal objection to the Municipal Lodging House is the fact that there is no obligatory work test and that many men remain three days and under certain circumstances and in many cases longer, without giving any return to the City. He stated that there is a population of at least 20,000 floaters in the 90 lodging houses in the City, which average 125 beds each, and that there are at least 5,000 or 6,000 in the lodging houses in Brooklyn, while there are many thousands who sleep in the streets, parks, etc., so that the total number in the City is perhaps 40,000. Mr. Lewis urged the endorsement by the Commission of the proposed Farm Colony for New York State to accommodate 600 men, the maximum commitment to which should be not over one and one-half years for the first offense. Mr. Lewis stated that the most serious result of congestion in relation to delinquency was to conduce to crime due to the overcrowding in rooms, and he felt that it was not possible to control congestion and overcrowding in rooms without a closer supervision.

Mr. A. Bullard, Agent for the Prison Association, stated:

"I find it impossible to separate congestion, poverty and immigration. The poor and the immigrants live in the congested districts, and both poverty and recent arrival in new and strange environments are handicaps to the struggle for existence, and increase the temptations to crime. My observations would lead me to say that at the very least 75 per cent. of our City crime originates in the congested districts."

He submitted data showing that a good many of the men who are sent to Elmira come from overcrowded rooms, but stated that he had not established any statistical relations. He emphasized especially the overcrowding of individual homes which might and does occur in many partially settled districts, as follows:

"Of all the manifest relations between congestion and crime, that which has struck me the most forcibly is in regard to offenses against public morals. The lack of proper play spaces for children forces them into the evil contacts of the gutter. The lack of parlors in the homes of the poor forces the growing girls to meet their men friends outside, often clandestinely. The presence of strange men boarders in the overcrowded homes of the congested districts has a notoriously bad influence, and prostitution in the tenement houses is perhaps the most disintegrating of all the evil concomitants of congestion."

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY.

Mr. Ernest K. Coulter, Clerk of the Children's Court of New York County, stated that congestion is responsible for a vast number of the cases that come to

the Children's Court of New York City, since environment counts nine-tenths in the whole proposition of juvenile delinquency, and that the bad environment of congestion has been responsible for the trouble of most of the 80,000 children who have been brought into the Juvenile Court since it was started. (Mr. Coulter has been connected with the Court since it has been founded.) The room overcrowding Mr. Coulter ascribes largely to the poverty of the families. He emphasizes the bad features of this overcrowding on the physique of the children and, hence, upon their morals, as also of the unsanitary and dark rooms in which they are living, and stated that there is little space in their rooms for the children day or night, unless they are put to work. The most skillful pickpockets in New York City are children. The employment of children in the tenements is a serious problem and should be prohibited, while the high rents require the labor of practically all members of the family, even children of five years of age are working for blood money. Mr. Coulter suggested that the number of factories in a given district should be restricted and that the names of the real owners of every tenement should be put on tenements. He remarked that "seldom do tenement owners themselves complain of congestion because they know the greater the crowd the greater the rate of rental that can be charged." To the following statements of Mr. Coulter careful attention should be given:

"There have been little children brought to Court on charges of no proper guardianship suffering from syphilis contracted from these lodgers. Only recently a case came to the attention of the courts where a thirteen year old girl had strangled her baby, of which one of the lodgers in the house was the father."

COST TO THE COMMUNITY.

Mr. Coulter reported that the cost to The City of New York was \$5.62 each time a child is arraigned in the Children's Court of New York County, and that this is about one-seventh of the per capita cost of the child's education for one year. When a child is committed it costs the City at least \$120 for the maintenance of each child in the institution and there are about 1,800 children annually committed to the institutions, making the total cost approximately \$216,000 for each year they remain, while of course the wretchedness and suffering of families and of the children particularly, is vastly more important than the money cost to the City.

STATISTICAL EVIDENCE OF THE RESULTS OF CONGESTION.

Mr. Coulter stated that the 39th Police Precinct contributed most heavily to the arraignment of children in the Children's Court of New York County.. This precinct is bounded on the south by 96th st., on the west by Central Park and Lenox ave., on the north by 116th st., and on the east by the East River. The total population of this precinct is approximately 220,000, out of a total population this year of 2,762,522 in New York City (Manhattan and The Bronx), the population is therefore approximately 8 per cent. of the City's population, while the precinct furnished 12 per cent. of all the arraignments in the Children's Court on general charges and 9 per cent. of the arraignments because of improper guardianship. This district, of course, is rapidly becoming congested and includes what is known as "Little Italy." The 9th Precinct furnished the third highest number of arraignments. This is bounded on the south by Division st., on the west by the Bowery, and on the north by Houston st., and on the east by Clinton st. and Norfolk st. It has a population of approximately 130,000, or slightly under 5 per cent. of the population of the county, while the arraignments on general charges of this precinct were 7 per cent. of the total for the City and the arraignments on charges of no proper guardianship were 5½ per cent.

Miss Julia Richman, Principal of School 56, stated that she would ascribe all the evils of child life on the East Side to three main reasons:

First—Inefficient parenthood.

Second—The absolute lack of respect that children have for their parents and lack of authority that parents have over their children.

Third—The economical conditions under which they live.

Miss Richman admitted that overcrowding is a most serious factor, and she instanced numerous cases which have come to her notice of the result of the demoralization of children due to personally observing the relations between the father and the mother inevitable with the overcrowded conditions of the home, especially when lodgers are taken in. Miss Richman thought that there was more accidental prostitution than direct prostitution as the result of this overcrowding. She stated, however, that the prevalence of the push cart on the East Side is a most potent and continual source of crime by tempting young children to steal. Miss Richman declared that adequate provision of parks and playgrounds should be made where the boys, especially, could work off the surplus of animal spirits and urges that Sunday baseball be permitted as safeguard for the children of these districts. Miss Richman also called attention

to the large number of widowers with children to support who could not get any one to care for them and therefore kept the oldest child out of school in order that she might look after the other children. Miss Richman advocated the careful but tactful enforcement of the law against overcrowding and felt that the City should, at whatever cost, see that these people had decent accommodations rather than the overcrowded rooms in which they are now living on account of destitution. The part time evil in the schools is particularly bad for children over 8 years of age since they need the supervision and control furnished them in schools during the number of hours provided for in a full day of schooling. Miss Richman advocated that the City should furnish a meal to children at noon for three cents, under careful supervision so that if any child could not afford to pay the money it could be furnished the meal without any charge.

Miss Maud E. Miner, Secretary of the Probation Association, who has been for several years a probation officer herself stated that she laid Crime and Delinquency particularly to three causes:

First—The sweatshop home.

Second—The deserted home.

Third—The overcrowded home.

The sweatshop home is often due to the poverty of the family, all of the members in the home taking in work in order to earn enough for the family to subsist. She stated that she knew of many cases where young children were going to school and working until 12 o'clock at night in these sweatshop homes and then from 12 until 1 o'clock studied their lessons. She advocated a system by which the deserting husband should be made to work and what he earns given for the support of his wife and children.

OVERCROWDED ROOMS.

Miss Miner instanced a case of a woman being arraigned for vagrancy where she had been plying her trade in the same house with a mother and her children; the mother, of course, simply wanted the money and did not realize the effect of such conditions upon her children. It is impossible to maintain sex decency when it is permissible for nine people to live in two rooms, men, women and children all huddled together in these two or three rooms, and it is very harmful for the children to spend their time on the streets, but there is no other place for them to go to. Many of the moving picture shows on the East Side are very injurious to the morals of the girls, not merely because the pictures shown are bad, but the balconies and aisles are dark and the girls sit beside immoral men, who often inveigle them into immorality. It is true that a great many girls now support cadets, and Miss Miner stated that this is largely due to the congested conditions of the work places, the homes and the play places. There are men in the congested districts that have five and six girls working for them as prostitutes. It is extremely difficult to convict such cases. Many of the girls working in the factories do not earn more than \$4 and \$5 per week, most of them in unskilled trades, few of them are skilled and find it impossible to rise, many of them are below par mentally. Miss Miner stated that instead of developing more parks and playgrounds at present, that those in the City now should be under better supervision, to protect the children from loafers and immoral men who frequent these places. Miss Miner thought that less overcrowding would relieve the moral conditions, especially if the taking in of boarders was prevented.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE ON CRIME AND DELINQUENCY.

Your Committee therefore make the following recommendations:

Since the present Tenement House Law permits nine people, seven children and two adults or four adults and three children, to occupy an apartment of three rooms, this law should be amended to prohibit the occupancy of so few rooms by so many people. The Law should be enforced, as there is no pretense of enforcing it at present. As it stands upon the statute book to-day it is absolutely a dead letter.

First—The Committee recommend that the requirements as to cubic air space in apartments be increased to 600 cubic feet for each adult and 400 cubic feet of air space for each child over 12 years of age, that this law be vigorously enforced by placards in the apartments stating the number of people that are permitted to occupy the apartment, and that the owner or his responsible agent be required to ascertain how many tenants are to occupy the tenement when it is being leased, also that the lessee be required to register the fact with the owner of the tenement or his responsible agent when he is taking in a lodger.

Second—The Committee recommend that no lodger be permitted to occupy a room with a child over 12 years of age of the opposite sex. The Committee appreciate

that this is a law difficult to enforce, but the frightful results of failing to prevent these conditions has been amply demonstrated before your Committee.

The Committee recommend that tenement house manufacture be prohibited, or if that is not possible, that no manufacturing be permitted in tenements in which there are children and that the manufacturer be held responsible for the places in which his goods are being manufactured.

Fourth—The Committee recommend that more playgrounds and places of recreations of a more wholesome kind be provided for, and more careful supervision of the existing playgrounds, parks and recreation centres. They feel that the City could wisely conduct places of recreation under proper supervision themselves, where they do not exist at present.

Fifth—In view of the inevitable injury to children of the overcrowded conditions of city life, the Committee recommend that restriction on the height of tenements in outlying districts should be enforced.

Sixth—Since poverty is one of the principal causes of overcrowding and the consequent delinquency, the Committee recommend that relief be given where necessary to the families who are now living in congested districts by the City itself, their removal, however, to better quarters being a condition of their receiving such relief.

Seventh—The Committee recommend that the Department of Education be urged to arrange talks for mothers on the danger to their children of permitting them to occupy the rooms with lodgers, the values of such talks having been referred to by several of the speakers before your Committee.

Eighth—The Committee urge that more physical exercises be provided for children in the Public Schools and that the City should immediately take steps to eliminate entirely part-time by providing adequate teachers and rooms for the total attendance at the Public Schools without overcrowding the rooms.

Ninth—The Committee recommend that steps be taken to have the dark and insanitary rooms occupied in many of the tenements vacated and kept permanently vacated.

Tenth—The Committee recommend that the principle of the City Farm Colony be extended and that instead of maintaining an institution in the crowded sections of the City, other adults or children who are in need of relief, that they should be taught agriculture and gardening in institutions similar to the present Farm Colony.

Eleventh—The Committee recommend that in the congested districts of the City, where it is possible, that the streets be closed at certain times so as to permit the children to use these streets as playgrounds.

SUMMARY OF FOREIGN METHODS OF CITY PLANNING.

The most important features of city planning in foreign countries which have been suggested, in substance, are as follows:

First—Proper housing of the city's masses for a reasonable proportion of a fair wage, and within easy access of their work.

Second—Direct and adequate roads connecting the main business centres of a city with smaller roads of such width and construction as not to impose an unnecessary and burdensome cost upon the occupants of small houses.

Third—A proper system of water supply and sewage disposal, pipes and conduits for wires.

Fourth—The economic location of factories and prohibition of factories in districts where they will be an injury to the neighborhood, and, as a necessary corollary, provision of means of carrying freight.

Fifth—The elimination of the cost of carfare, as far as possible, to the working population.

Sixth—The decentralization of the city's business, pleasure and educational districts and interests.

Seventh—The provision of adequate parks, playgrounds and open spaces, with space for public buildings, to furnish not merely sites but settings.

Eighth—Such control over the location and volume of buildings for manufacturing and office purposes as will enable the city authorities to anticipate and provide adequate means for carrying passengers.

Ninth—The control of the development of new and unbuilt sections of a city, and the incorporation of adjacent areas so that their development may similarly be controlled.

In addition, however, one must note the instances of a remarkably effective exercise of the police powers of the State known as the *Lex Adickes*. Under this law, enacted by the Prussian Diet in 1902, either at the instance of a majority of owners of over half of the area of irregular and uneconomic plots, or on the initiative of the city itself, these lots may be thrown into a common pool and redistricted.

so that each lot shall be of the greatest value for use. This seemingly arbitrary requirement that the owner shall not be permitted to corner a district and render the economic use of a plot impossible is carefully safeguarded and constitutes a strong argument for utilitarianism on strictly economic grounds. The redistribution is carried out by a commission, consisting of two commissioners of the Provincial Council and at least one building expert, one lawyer, one certified surveyor and one further expert. Up to 40 per cent. of the land to be redistributed must be ceded to the city free of charge; for any amount exceeding this the city pays, but the law plainly states: "The redistribution is to be undertaken for the advantage of the public." The ground for streets and open places is separated from the total beforehand, and the remainder, in the form of regulated plots of land, brought in, in the report. Every owner receives land located as nearly as possible in the same locality as his original holding. The value of the building land apportioned must at least equal that of the old plot, otherwise the difference in value is to be made good to the owners in money. In the same way, compensation is made for buildings, market gardens, nurseries and the like which have been taken. If the redistribution takes place on the motion of the local authorities, the streets created must in general be available for public use within four years. Under the operation of this law in Frankfort nearly 250 acres up to 1909 had been redistricted, and many handsome private and public buildings constructed thereon. The municipal authorities at Frankfort summarize the advantages of this method of creating usable land out of irregular hodge-podges: "The erection of buildings of an uneconomic and unhygienic kind is prevented, and the future inhabitants are protected from unfit dwellings. The property of every party interested is improved. Misshapen streets are avoided, the streets being made from the first in continuous lines; long enduring traffic difficulties are cleared away, and consistency in the extension of the city is rendered feasible. The market for the building lots is enlarged and harmful speculation is thwarted. Thus the redistribution of town land, with its tendency to a healthy reform of land ownership, deserves to be placed beside the many expedients for the, at the root, fundamental dwelling question." Similar legislation has been enacted by other States of the German Empire, notably by Hesse, Hamburg and Baden, and also by democratic Switzerland. Under the Badenese law, however, the ground for public roads is purchased by the city, and this expenditure is made good to the community by the parties concerned only when the building operations have commenced.

It is customary in German, Austrian, Swiss and English cities for the local authorities themselves to prepare the plans for the city. The exact methods by which these plans are prepared vary from city to city. Sometimes they are developed by the building department, sometimes by the city engineer or by an official in charge of the transit lines of the city, which are usually owned by the city—a valuable asset in securing an economic city plan—but always the city engineer has the chief charge of the plans.

The following summary gives the procedure under the New Town Planning Act of England:

"The Procedure Regulations of the Town Planning Act.

"Made by the Local Government Board under section 56 of the Town Planning Act, and dated May 3, 1910.

"Outline.

"1. Resolution of borough or district that they are prepared to consider a proposal to prepare a scheme or to adopt one prepared by landowners.

"Notice of such resolution to be given within seven days to any council interested in the land.

"2. A large scale 'Map No. 1' of the projected scheme to be deposited at a place convenient for public inspection. Copies of the map to be furnished to every council any part of whose land is included.

"Notice of the projected scheme and of the deposited map to be inserted in newspaper, and served on owners, lessees and occupiers of land included in the scheme, and to councils any of whose land is included, and to the county council if a main road is affected.

"3. Consideration of representations made in writing by owners and others interested in land included in or affected by the scheme, also by urban and rural councils affected—conference thereon.

"4. At least one meeting, summoned by fourteen days' notice, of all interested.

"5. Not less than two months from service of the notices mentioned in paragraph 2, the promoting council passes a resolution to apply to the Local Government Board for authority to prepare or adopt the scheme.

"6. The resolution is sent to the Board, together with:

"(a) A large scale 'Map No. 2,' indicating the extent of the land comprised in the scheme, which parts of it are already built upon, which parts are not likely to be used for building, and defining the jurisdiction of the various councils affected. The map must also show existing buildings, highways, roads, sewers, pipes and mains, and also projected roads and open spaces.

"(b) A declaration that the necessary notices have been served, etc.

"(c) A small scale 'Map No. 3,' showing the surrounding country to a distance of five miles.

"(d) A copy of objections not withdrawn.

"(e) A general description of the scheme, particularly in relation to existing conditions.

"(f) Estimated cost of the scheme (1) to the promoting council, (2) to any other council interested.

"If the scheme is promoted by landowners, then:

"(g) Map No. 2 must indicate the proposed sewers, pipes, mains, etc., and the following information must be furnished:

"(h) Council's observations.

"(i) Names and addresses of persons interested in the land, whether statutes or by-laws would be infringed by the scheme; whether purchase of lands by any council is contemplated; information as to probable claims for compensation, and particulars of such claims by promoting landowners; estimated betterment.

"7. Notice of application to the Board must be given in the local press.

"If the board now authorize the council to prepare or adopt the scheme, the further procedure is as follows:

"(a) Notice to be given as in paragraph 2: (1) That the board has made the order; (2) that the council proposes to proceed; (3) that persons desiring to make objections or representation must do so in writing within twenty-one days.

"(b) Hearing by the council of objections and representations.

"(c) Preparation and printing of draft scheme by the council, with large scale 'Map No. 4,' indicating, in addition to the matters comprised in Maps 1 and 2, details of proposed roads, pipes and mains, and particulars of the type of buildings to be erected on various portions of land, i. e., the purpose of such buildings and any restrictions as to their height or number to the acre.

"Or, alternatively, adoption by the council, with or without modification, of the scheme prepared by landowners, and printing of the same, with Map No. 4, as above.

"(d) Notice as in paragraph 2 of council's intention to finally adopt and submit the scheme to the board, and deposit the scheme, maps, etc., for public inspection, together with notice that the council will consider objections and representations made in writing within twenty-one days.

"(e) Meeting, to which all interested are summoned by fourteen days' notice.

"(f) Not less than one month from giving notice of their intention to do so, the council may, by resolution, finally adopt the scheme and submit it to the Board, together with:

"(1) Maps similar to the No. 4 series, but finally rectified and called 'Maps No. 5.'

"(2) A declaration that the necessary notices have been served, etc.

"(3) A small scale 'Map No. 6' of the district in which the scheme is included, and showing all open spaces, elementary schools and other buildings.

"(4) A large scale 'Map No. 7,' giving names and estates of owners of land comprised in the scheme.

"(5) A copy of objections not withdraw.

"(6) All particulars specified in articles VIII. and IX. (see paragraph 6) and certain other particulars.

"(7) Estimated cost.

"(8) Local acts, provisional orders, by-laws and regulations in force in the various districts included.

"(g) The council give notice by advertisement that they have submitted the scheme to the Board, that copies are available for inspection and that objections and representations may be made to the board within one month.

"(h) If the Board propose to modify the scheme, they will send the draft order to the council, who must notify all concerned that any objections to the modified scheme must be made to the board within a month.

"(i) The draft order of the board finally approving the scheme will be published in the 'London Gazette' and notice given in the local press that any person may object by writing to the board within twenty-one days.

"(k) When the order of the board approving the scheme has been made, the council must give notice in the local press and also notify all concerned.

"(l) The board may vary or dispense with any of the regulations other than those required by the act.

H. C. DOWDALL."

INFORMATION AND SUGGESTIONS REGARDING CONGESTION OF POPULATION AND METHODS OF PREVENTING CONGESTION IN GERMAN CITIES.

Submitted by Mr. Otto David.

1. With few exceptions there are no statistics giving the density of population per acre by districts and blocks, in German cities. There are statistics giving the size of the cities or their population which may give a picture of the density of these cities.

2. About the distribution of population in relation to living quarters, that is: number of rooms; the large cities maintain statistical offices, which besides the general taking of the census prepare such statistics all the time.

3. In connection with the various laws about the use and condition of living quarters, there are in existence chiefly three systems of inspection:

(a) Volunteer inspection, as an honorary office.

(b) Professional inspection by paid officials.

(c) Inspection by the co-operation of both in connection with so-called Wohnungs-Kommissionen (Housing Commissions).

The first system, which is used for instance in Hamburg, has proven itself to be insufficient. No headway can be made without the co-operation of the professional element; where there is a thorough housing inspection, we have to deal everywhere with a more or less forceful co-operation of the professional element. In fact the general inspection at the present time is performed by a police officer of a building department and in many places very good results have been obtained. We do not find the co-operation of professional and volunteer inspection very often. In the city of Strassburg this co-operation has worked the best. The co-operation of volunteer elements in these cases has the advantage, that houseowners as well as tenants make the execution of orders more easily possible, if plain civilians participate in giving these orders. In general, the effectiveness of inspection depends upon how many facilities are at the disposal of the housing inspectors and its frequency and regularity in accordance with the official regulations.

4. The authorities in Germany have vacated the overcrowded dwellings in only a very few cases. The majority of German cities having a deficiency of small dwellings, and as the occupied dwellings necessarily are occupied by families with a great number of children, who, anyhow, have hard work in finding suitable accommodations, the result of vacating would be that these families would become absolutely shelterless. In cases of vacating dwellings, the department of public charity are required to provide shelter for families affected by such vacating.

5. Private or public charities would have to be called upon only in very few cases of vacating dwellings where the activity of public authorities is not considered beyond what is stated under number 4; but charitable organizations exist in a number of cities, who put means at the disposal of families with a great many children, to help them in getting an additional room, for instance, a family of six with only two rooms, will be helped to rent three rooms. There are also organizations to fight consumption which assist in procuring additional rooms.

6. A statistical comparison of death rates in overcrowded rooms of tenements in congested districts is not common now though in former years such comparisons were made. It is necessary to be careful in using these comparisons, because a high death rate is caused, not only by bad housing conditions, but also by bad nourishment, long working hours and bad sanitary conditions in certain city districts, besides many other causes that may have an influence on the death rate.

7. In regard to cubic air space, there are only figures, which give the area, that can be utilized for the buildings proper in general, factory regulations are left to the state. Restrictions on factories are generally put only on such ones, become a nuisance to their surroundings.

F. Statement Submitted by Mr. Frank Bailey, Vice-President The Title Guarantee & Trust Co.

There are three subjects I submit for your consideration:

1. An alteration of the Tenement House Law so that three-story buildings may be constructed for three families on a basis of rental which will give a return on cost both to the builder and owner.

Prior to the Tenement House Law, this class of construction was largely adopted in Brooklyn. The properties have always sold well; they have been comfortable and

hygienic and have been a favorite class of investment on the part of the people with small sums.

Under the new law, the tenants have had so much light and air and the cost of construction has been so great that these three-story houses are no longer feasible. They have been replaced by the two-family house, which requires a tenant to pay more money, and the three-story house caring for two families on a floor.

2. The Tenement House and General Building laws of the City and the Regulations of the Board of Health should all tend towards making tenement house ownership more comfortable than it is, otherwise there can be no increase in tenement house construction for the account of decent owners. If the tenant throws garbage in the back yard, the tenant (not the owner) should be fined; if the tenant wastes water, it is the tenant (not the owner) who should pay. In other words, an entire change in the attitude of the authorities to the end that some of the responsibilities now assumed by others should be brought with great vigor upon the tenants. This change would produce better living upon their part, and would result in more tenement house construction of the best kind. Just as long as the attitude of our laws is one that produces tenement house ownership as only feasible in the hands of those who will use their efforts to dodge the proper statutes and regulations, in those who care nothing about the tenant excepting the amount of money which can be obtained from him—which class of ownership is bound to exist as long as there is as at present persecution of tenement house owners to the extent now existing—just so long will there be a congestion proposition in New York City.

3. An entire change of the Tenement House Law so that the requirements for the \$3,000 apartments should not be the same as the requirement for the \$5 per month flat. Many a poor tenant moves from the new flat into an old and inferior building because he cannot pay the coal bill necessary to heat the flat having an air shaft as great as the big steam-heated building. When this new Tenement Law was passed, I prophesied that the result would be congestion and a herding of people in large tenements. Whether that prophecy was true, I leave you to judge.

I feel sure that there is no class of measures which will tend more to relieve congestion, and that, too, rapidly, than the fixing of responsibility for misdeeds of the tenant and allowing the construction of three-family houses on an economic basis in both the Boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens, and a tenement house law which differentiates the class of construction.

The proportion of each block for uncovered area I take to be practically the same as percentage of block covered, and for private dwellings, the present law provided that 90 per cent. of the lot area may be covered. What the actual conditions are I do not know, as I have never had occasion to look it up. As a general thing, however, new buildings being erected cover about the full 90 per cent. There are no records in my department showing these conditions as they actually exist. That would be a matter that could be determined possibly from the insurance maps, which show private dwellings as distinguished from tenements. They give these facts approximately, within 5 per cent. or 10 per cent. On these maps blocks are drawn to scale and the houses are located to scale, though it is such a small scale that you can easily make errors in taking the dimensions as they do not give more than the width of the lot, but no information as to the shafts or size of the houses. You could only approximate it.

Mr. Chairman: Do you, in your plans filed, indicate just what percentage of the lot is occupied?

Mr. Miller: They do not indicate it in that way. They give the dimensions of the house to be erected and the man who examines it or the plans sees that 10 per cent. of the lot is uncovered, that is in the case of private dwellings. We get the dimensions of the building and from that we figure to see that the uncovered area is provided, and our inspectors make the report showing those conditions, but if it is more than 10 per cent. we make no note of it. We simply examine to see that 10 per cent. is left uncovered. In the case of buildings occupied in part for business purposes and in part for dwellings, the entire lot may be covered in that portion of the building occupied for business purposes, so that we have a great number of buildings in which there are stores on the first floor and dwellings above where the entire lot area is covered in first and 90 per cent. covered above.

Mr. Chairman: Do you find that the filling up of the entire area of the first floor would affect the conditions, and what effect would it have on such conditions to be changed?

Mr. Miller: This is a matter of judgment.

Mr. Chairman: Do you think some discretion should be allowed or lodged with the Superintendent of Buildings?

Mr. Miller: No, I think the law should say what shall be allowed in such cases

and he should see that the law is carried out. What shall remain uncovered is a matter of judgment, and if it is to be based on anything, it must be based on statistics of some kind to show what effect this covered area has on the occupants. If the conditions throughout the block are such that in one case 2-stories are occupied by stores and only one story by stores in another, then it would have decided effect. The uncovered areas for warehouses and factories is not fixed at all, that is to say, warehouses and factories can cover the entire area. In office buildings there is a restriction of 10 per cent. if the building is not located on a corner, but there is no provision made as to how much or how large a corner lot is or may be. If the building occupies the entire block, no uncovered area need be provided because it is all corner building. Commercial conditions make it necessary, however, to provide some uncovered area to light the covered area. In hotels the restrictions are very severe. In the tall hotel buildings, say 20 stories high, the restriction is such that you cannot cover more than about 40 per cent. of the lot area above the second story. For corner lots 98 per cent. of the lot may be covered. But a corner lot is restricted to 3,000 square feet. For interior lots 10 per cent. of the plot must be left uncovered for the first five stories in height and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for each story above the fifth. As to the restriction of the height of buildings there is none except what the effect of uncovered area may be. There is no law as to the height of buildings. Restriction as to cubage is the same thing. In my opinion the height of buildings should be restricted. I think it is desirable from many standpoints. Just what it should be I am not prepared to say now. An opinion of that kind is influenced by a great many things and I must say that I change mine from time to time. Sometime in the future I shall be glad to state my judgment of that point. And I shall be glad to submit to the Commission the recommendation I have made regarding the restrictions for uncovered areas. I submitted it to the Building Commission of 1907. As far as such restrictions are concerned, I do not believe in specifying a percentage. I believe in specifying certain definite requirements; for instance, yards at the rear increasing in depth according to the height of the building; also provisions that any courts shall have minimum sizes rather than fixed percentage, and that no living room or sleeping room shall be permitted that does not open to the outer air or on a court of the minimum dimensions. The present law does not provide anything regarding the rooms, except the excise law in regard to rooms of hotels. There is no specific provision as to where the uncovered area shall be left. One of the Commissioners some time ago took the stand that it must be left at the rear of the lot, but he was unable to enforce it, and he was beaten in the courts, as in the Martha Washington Hotel which runs from street to street, where he insisted on the light court remaining across the centre of the building. The courts, as I recollect it, decided that all the Commissioner could require was that the percentage of uncovered area should be provided and that the applicant was at liberty to place it where he saw fit, provided it secured light and ventilation to the building. Of course that was a matter of judgment, but so long as it secured light and ventilation it could be disposed of as the applicant saw fit. There is nothing specific about the location of the court. In other words, you could locate the court wherever you pleased, provided you left sufficient light and air.

As to the demolition of unsanitary houses, of course, our department has no authority. It might be a good thing if we did have authority to remove some illegal structures. We have authority to remove unsafe buildings. The question of zone areas has never been taken up. No, we have no restrictions, except as to the form of construction, which, of course, does not make any difference to the question at issue here, whether it is fireproof or not. As to basement dwellings, I believe all residence buildings should be treated alike. If a certain amount of light and ventilation is necessary for the occupants of tenements, it seems that the same is necessary for the occupants of hotels and dwellings, and my view on that point is expressed in this provision submitted to the Building Code Commission, that no living room or sleeping room should be placed in any building unless it has direct exterior ventilation. There are quite a number of plans still filed for interior rooms, but very few interior unlighted rooms. But in this I am not covering tenement houses. We only pass on the construction of the tenements. I might say that there are very few private dwellings in Manhattan being constructed. There are as many theatres as private dwellings.

As to the standard floor area and cubic feet of space for rooms, I have also expressed myself in those recommendations. There is at present nothing in the law requiring certain area or cubage in rooms, except I think there may be something in the requirements as to lodging houses. There is a charter provision as to lodging houses.

Mr. Chairman: Will you take up the question of cubage of buildings and the volume of buildings, aside from tenements, as a means of restricting the intensive

use of land? Do you favor that system as the Mayor's Commission suggested, and to take into consideration the cubage and area of the lot in the restriction of buildings?

Mr. Miller: I do not think that is necessary, if we fix the minimum requirements for yards and shafts and fix possibly the heights of buildings. In other words, the same might be effected by legislation. It is not the cubage we are after. We are after light and ventilation of the buildings for the occupants. In the second floor these have to have light and ventilation as well as those on the upper floors, and the shafts ought necessarily to increase in size. That will restrict the building in cubage, especially if you have a limit on height. You can accomplish the same thing by the cubage method, but it won't do to specify the height and cubage both together, as one interferes with the other. The same thing about percentage of lot to be covered and the sizes of shafts and yards. You can accomplish the thing by either method, but I think that to specify the minimum of yards and courts is the better way because then we know we are getting the uncovered area in the places where we need it.

Mr. Chairman: Do you think, from your knowledge of one or two-family houses, of which there are a few in Manhattan, it would be well to have the same provisions as for tenements?

Mr. Miller: I do. I think occupants of dwellings are entitled to the same consideration as those in any other type of buildings. My view is that all residence buildings in which there are living rooms should be treated alike in that respect. But that is impracticable for certain reasons, as the tenement-house question is a question by itself, and it may be desirable, for practical reasons, to treat tenement houses a little differently than other types of buildings, but as a general proposition they should be treated alike. Sometimes more people are crowded into a two-family house than in tenements, such families taking lodgers. I will be glad to give you any suggestions that occur to me in addition in better form and in writing.

STATEMENTS SUBMITTED TO THE COMMITTEE ON FACTORIES.

A. Statement Submitted by Hon. John Williams, Commissioner of the State Department of Labor, on Methods of the Department.

He stated that the Department made inspections at least once a year of all factories in New York City, and that the report submitted by the Deputy Inspectors carries information as to whether the factories inspected were located in any other place previously so as to determine whether they are identical. A comparison of statistics of the number of factories by boroughs would not be of particular value.

Proximity of the labor market is an important factor in determining the location of factories. There are about 26,000 factories in New York City and 14,000 tenement houses licensed for tenement manufacture, making about 40,000 places to be inspected. There is a permanent force of 35 inspectors for New York City, but during the winter the up-State inspectors are brought down so that the number averages about 40 for the year. Last year officers of the Department visited 160,000 tenement apartments in New York City. The Department inspects every tenement in which there is an apartment used for manufacture.

Mr. Williams stated that he is opposed to the idea of having a Bureau of Investigation or Mediation and Conciliation unpaid, since members must give practically all their time to the work of the Commission and could not do this on a volunteer basis. He doubted the wisdom of attempting to make investigations except upon complaint. When asked whether he thought manufacturing in tenements could be abolished in time, he replied that in his judgment this is not possible, but if the experience of the community proves that further regulation is needed this regulation can probably be secured.

In answer to the question as to the best means of distributing factories Commissioner Williams stated that he had not given the matter much consideration and would wish to do so before making a reply, but suggested that it may be within the limits of the State's province to prohibit the establishment of a factory in a tenement above the first floor. He thought that an effort to prohibit the location of factories in Manhattan by requiring space between tenements and other buildings was not feasible, as so many factory buildings have already been constructed without this provision. He stated in conclusion that as a means of regulating tenement house manufacture it might be possible to place upon the manufacturer the responsibility of seeing that no work is given to families where children would do any of the work.

DEATH RATES IN NEW YORK AND SOME FOREIGN CITIES.

The Department of Health of New York City have furnished the following statistics of the crude and corrected death rates of a few cities:

Death Rates per 1,000.

	Crude Death Rate.	Corrected Death Rate.
London	14.00	14.70 (1908)
Berlin	16.00	17.63 (1906)
Paris	18.00	19.12 (1906)
New York	15.96	17.69 (1909)

They also show that Boston's death rate corrected to New York standard is 16.3 as compared with the New York rate of 15.96.

E. Statement by Mr. G. E. De Palma-Castiglione, Manager, the Labor Information Office for Italians.

1. Necessity of Regulating the Business of Taking Boarders or Lodgers Within the Limits of The City of New York.

For foreign laborers who have their families here it is customary to take in their houses as boarders, or lodgers, those of their countrymen who are alone, or whose families have been left abroad. The number of laborers resident without families being enormously large, the business of taking lodgers is very profitable. The runners of such tenement apartments or lodging houses charge each lodger from \$2.50 to \$3 per month. For this amount they supply (1) one place in a bed (changing linen every fifteen or twenty days); (2) fuel to cook foods and use of the family stove; (3) washing of the personal linen of lodgers.

Hygienic and sanitary conditions in such tenement apartments and houses are deplorable, destructive of health and good morals. Families living in two or three-room apartments often have five or six lodgers who sleep together, two and sometimes three in one bed. Such overcrowding absolutely prevents the possibility of boarders washing, bathing and taking the proper care of their bodies. Promiscuity of living often corrupts habits and causes sexual depravity. Contrary to the general opinion, on account of higher rents, conditions are worse in the new tenement houses than they were in the old ones.

It seems advisable that your Commission consider the possibility of requiring all persons who take lodgers, whether in separate houses or apartments, to obtain a license which would be granted only after a proper inspection of the premises, and which would definitely limit the number of lodgers; all licensed houses to be under the inspection of the Board of Health and all licenses to be immediately revocable for just cause. Several other countries have such a law and in some, in Germany and in Switzerland, for instance, it is strictly enforced.

2. The enactment of such a law as above suggested should be simultaneous with the opening of lodging houses where accommodations identical with those actually supplied by private lodging houses should be supplied at an identical price (\$2.50 to \$3 per month). Such lodging houses should be built in the heart of the districts inhabited by immigrants.

They could perhaps best be built and run by private individuals. The City might appropriate a certain amount to be given as subsidy or prize to the founders of such lodging houses.

3. A. Compulsory Teaching of English to All Adult Residents of the City Who Cannot Prove that They Know the Language.

Ignorance of English is the strongest barrier to the distribution of immigrants, and it is the main cause of their congested colonies. Foreigners, who do not understand English, feel lost when they are not surrounded by people who speak their own language. There are many immigrants who have lived for years in this City and have never left the districts inhabited by their countrymen.

An ignorance of English prevents foreign laborers from becoming acquainted with opportunities existing outside of the places where they live.

4. Reduced Rate of Transportation on Cars, Elevated and Subway, from 5 a. m. to 7 a. m. on All Working Days.

This system has been in force for several years in some European cities, and it has produced some good results, inducing wage-earners to go and live in the less crowded districts. In several European cities during the two hours from 5 a. m. to

7 a. m. (and in some to 9 a. m.) the fare is as low as five centimes (a little less than one cent) per person.

Colonization as a Means of Checking Congestion.

As long as the average wage of laborers employed in construction and maintenance work, either in city or country, is larger than the wage of farm laborer, it is of no use to make any effort to induce immigrants, who in their own country were farmers, to go and work on farms here as farmhands. But the alien farmer or farm laborer could be induced to go farming as farm owner. There are hundreds of farms, even in New York State, either abandoned or poorly cultivated, which can be bought at an average price of \$10 per acre, buildings included. The price of some of these farms no more than covers the cost of their buildings. A large number of them may be purchased by making a small cash payment in advance (from \$100 to \$300), the balance in small installments. Immigrants are entirely ignorant of the existence of these farms. The Department of Agriculture of New York State issues now and then a list of farms on sale in this State, but owing to the fact that this list is published only in English, it is useless as far as the non-English speaking population is concerned. The Department ought to publish information of this kind in the principal languages spoken by the foreign population of the State, and list the descriptions of farms according to price.

But even the publication of these bulletins in foreign language would not provide adequately for the instruction of immigrants in the agricultural opportunities existing in this State. A large number of the total number of immigrants, and almost all those who come from the agricultural districts of Europe, are either illiterate or have not acquired the habit and need of reading. Therefore the publication in foreign language of the farms for sale would be of limited use. The State, either through the Department of Agriculture or the Bureau of Immigration and Industries, ought to employ special agents who speak these foreign languages fluently to canvass or lecture in the foreign quarters of our great cities, and thus inform the immigrant population of the agricultural possibilities here existing. Sub-agents paid on a commission basis might also be employed with advantage to induce immigrants to invest their earnings in farms on sale within the State. Such sub-agents should be recruited among those who are in close and daily touch with immigrants (bankers, steamship ticket brokers, grocers, etc.). "The Abstract of the Report of the United States Commission of Immigration on the Immigration Situation in Other Countries" illustrates the extraordinarily successful work that the Canadian Government does to induce immigrants to settle on land. We quote from this report:

"Salaried agents of the Canadian Immigration Department are stationed in London, Liverpool, Birmingham, York, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Belfast, Exeter, Dublin, Paris and Antwerp, and under their direction an extensive advertising campaign is carried on. Officially prepared circulars in several languages, setting forth the inducements offered by Canada to agricultural immigrants, are distributed in large numbers; similar advertisements are carried in newspapers and other publications which circulate among the classes most desired; permanent exhibits of Canadian products are maintained in several cities, and travelling exhibits are sent to various sections of Great Britain and Ireland and to agricultural fairs and other exhibitions throughout the United Kingdom.

"Another feature of the propaganda, and one which particularly indicates Canada's desire for immigrants, is the payment of a liberal bonus to several thousand so-called booking agents in the favored countries. These booking agents are for the most part local steamship ticket agents, and, theoretically, the bonus is allowed for the purpose of inducing such agents to favor Canada by directing thereto intended emigrants who otherwise might choose a different destination. The bonus paid is £1 (\$4.86) on each person 18 years of age or over, and 10s (\$2.43) on persons between one and 18 years. In Great Britain it is paid upon tickets to Canada sold to British subjects engaged in the occupation of a farmer, farm laborer, gardener, stableman, carter, railway surfaceman, navy or miner, and who signify their intention of following farming or railway construction work in Canada. Female domestic servants are also included. A like bonus is paid on similar classes of immigrants from France, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Finland. During the fiscal years 1905 to 1909, inclusive, this bonus was paid on 16.5 per cent. of all British immigrants, and on 11 per cent. of all immigrants from continental Europe, admitted to Canada.

"In England the Salvation Army is also utilized as an agency to promote emigration to Canada, and grants of money are made to the army for that purpose. It is stated, however, that no immigrants are brought to Canada at the Government's expense.

"The British press is relied upon as a factor in promoting emigration to Canada through news articles relative to the progress and advantages of the Dominion, and also through the publication of letters from persons who have settled there. British newspaper writers and other publicity agents are encouraged to visit Canada, and it is stated that much desirable advertising has resulted.

"Some years ago Canada inaugurated the plan of sending agricultural delegates to Great Britain to supplement the work of regular immigration agents, and this proved so successful that the practice has been continued.

"For many years Canada has regarded the United States as a desirable field for immigration effort. The propaganda here is conducted under the direction of an official designated as inspector of agencies and press agent, and general agents are stationed in sixteen cities. The efforts of these salaried representatives are supplemented by a large number of agents, who are paid a commission of \$3 per man, \$3 per woman, and \$1 per child on bona fide settlers induced by them to settle in western Canada. During the fiscal years 1905 to 1909, inclusive, this commission was paid on 5.6 per cent. of all United States immigrants entering Canada."

New York State, it is true, has no free land to offer, but, as I have said, many of the farms on sale in New York State are sold for a price inferior to the cost of their buildings, while the Canadian homesteads consist of bare and unfenced prairie land.

I feel satisfied that a systematic propaganda conducted on similar lines would induce many immigrants now living in cities to buy farms throughout the State. It is a fact that a large number of aliens who after some years emigrate from the United States buy land and return to farming in their own country. This proves (1) that there are many of our immigrants who have money in sufficient amounts to buy farms; (2) that there are many immigrants who are really eager to devote themselves to agricultural work.

Of course the number of immigrants who have money enough to buy farms is small in comparison with the total number of those immigrants who were farmers in their own country. A large number of those belonging to this class have not money enough to buy and equip farms and become independent. But the number of those having \$200 or \$300 is very large, and this amount is often sufficient to make the first payment on the purchase price of a farm, but it is not sufficient to stock the farm and pay living expenses until the first crop is marketed. This class of immigrants could be induced to buy farms only by special inducements, such as that of paying the greater part of the price of purchase of the farm in installments after the crops are marketed, and of buying tools, stock and provisions wholly or partly on credit. Colonization companies working on such a plan would certainly appeal to a large number of this class of immigrants, and it would be worth while for the State to consider means of assisting the formation of such companies.

Record of Number of Persons Placed by Largest Agencies for Distributing Population During 1910 in New York City, New York State and Other States.

Organization.	Total.	New York State.	New York City.	Other States.	
National Employment Exchange..	3,574	1,591	398	1,585	Period ending Sept. 30, 1910
Hebrew Sheltering and Immigra- tion Aid Society	732	683	49	Nov. 30, 1910
Civic League of North America..	3,834	3,499	335	Oct. 5-Nov. 30, 1910
Division of Information in the De- partment of Immigration.....	4,283	2,139	2,144	Year ended June 30, 1910
*Industrial Removal Office.....	3,504	247	3,257	1909
Jewish Agricultural Industrial Aid Society	343	217	126	1909
New York State Department of Agriculture	4,944	4,944	1910
Labor Office for Italians.....	2,904	1910
Total.....	24,118	9,138	4,580	7,496	

The Commissioner of Licenses of New York City states that the contract labor statements filed by employment agents show that 24,925 men exclusive of farm hands

were sent out of the City during the year ended May 1, 1910.

*This Agency also granted (during 1909) 265 Farm Loans amounting to \$141,494.48; 56 of these were in New York State, amounting to \$20,554.15.

It should be noted that the year which the report covers ends at different dates during the year, and that there may be some duplication, while many cases are replacements. The population of New York City increases from 125,000 to 140,000 a year.

STATEMENTS MADE BY CONTRACTORS ON THE CATSKILL AQUEDUCT.

B. These Statements Were Taken Down by a Stenographer, but Speakers Have Not Revised Them.

Mr. J. B. Goldsborough: Stated that they had at present about 2,500 laborers employed.

Chairman: From your records, apparently, you average 270 working days a year, and 1,200 employees receive between \$400 and \$500 a year. I would ask whether, in your judgment, you generally pay or get the immigrants chiefly because they work cheaper?

Mr. Goldsborough: We have to hunt considerably in getting any at all. As regards the average wages, I should say that \$400 is the minimum, the highest being \$500.

Secretary: I notice that a good many of the immigrants you employ have given their address below 14th street. Do they keep their families here mostly?

Mr. Goldsborough replied that there were very few who had their families out on the works. A great many of their families are in foreign countries.

Chairman: They are trying to support a family, then, on \$400 a year?

Mr. Goldsborough replied that was equal to 20 cents an hour for eight hours. He further stated that there was much time lost in finishing and starting the jobs. As to the New York laborers, they would rather stay in town for less money than go to the country.

Chairman: Cannot the attraction of the Bowery be overcome by good wages?

Mr. Goldsborough replied that it was of no use to try and induce them to go so far from town. In fact, it was hard to get them to go up to the Croton Dam, and unless even the foreigners had friends up there they would not go. The English speaking men do not care for the laboring jobs at all. If you offer more money to the English-speaking men, say \$2 a day, they do not accomplish as much work as the trained Italians, in my opinion. If they do go for a little more they soon return to town. There seems to be very few Germans who are laborers. The foreigners are now beginning to do the contractor's work, and I believe that within fifteen years from now they will all be foreign contractors, especially in building construction. Every year there seems to be a large increase; a few years ago there were none, but today they are growing rapidly.

Chairman: Do you know how they are living?

Mr. Goldsborough: There are none who are living in a room, but they are living in three and four-room cottages, these being the smallest. But a great many of the men take larger houses and keep boarders, as there are very few three-room houses.

Secretary: How can a family with six or seven in the family live; that is, do you consider the wages adequate?

The ordinary laborer needs \$2.50 or \$3 a day, even the City recognizes the fact, and in the Boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn the men are getting from \$2 to \$2.50 for just ordinary laboring work. Mr. Goldsborough said the laborer's work such as can be seen along the aqueduct is done by men who are appointed by the Civil Service and have to read and write, so that a common laborer would not stand much chance to get on the list. The list, however, is good only for one year.

Chairman: Do you mean to say that you think \$1.33 a day is as good in the country as \$2.50 in New York? The City is now paying \$2.50 a day and may raise it to \$3 in the Greater City.

Mr. Campbell: There was an advertisement which appeared here last year to the effect that the Northern Pacific would pay \$2.50 and \$3 a day during the harvest season to all laborers.

Mr. Goldsborough stated that if he could get the Americans he would rather have them, but that they were hard to get, and even at \$3 a day, for eight and ten hours' work, the men were just as apt to go on a strike as the ones at lower wages.

The next speaker was Mr. Nelson, of Messrs. Rhinehardt & Dennis Company.

The Secretary asked if he was paying at the rate of \$1.50 or the average of \$1.75 a day.

Mr. Nelson: \$1.75 a day is the average, but there are exceptions to that rate, some getting more and some less, as the case of shovelers, who get but \$1.50.

Secretary: Your men work an average about how many days a year?

Mr. Nelson: We have only had the work opened up since the spring, and they have been working steadily since then.

Secretary: Do you pay the colored people \$1.75 a day?

Mr. Nelson: Yes, most of them receive \$1.75. We have been on two aqueduct contracts and in both instances we have tried to employ natives, but the trouble with the American is that one-half of the time he will work and one-half he will not, even though we are willing to pay him more. It hardly pays to take them from New York, for as soon as they make enough money to pay their way back they leave. We have paid them as high as \$2 and \$2.50 to set up forms and at laboring work of that kind.

Mr. Campbell: Do you have any trouble in getting laborers?

Mr. Nelson: We have had a great deal at certain times; at other times we are flooded with them.

Chairman: What times of the year are you flooded?

Mr. Nelson: We had a hard time to get men in February and March and had to get a good many from agencies and pay \$1 a head. By doing this we were able to keep supplied.

The Chairman then asked if it would be of any advantage to them if the men came through a Municipal Employment Agency. Mr. Nelson replied that probably not, as they would in all likelihood have men that would not suit the contractors, that is, in general they would not understand things. This trouble does not exist in the private agency.

Through one agency we got some men in the City and agreed to pay them \$1.75 as tunnel laborers and paid their fares, but when they arrived they did not like the condition of things and returned to New York. Italians, Austrians, etc., are with you today and gone tomorrow.

Chairman: Do you believe that if we could get some of the charities to send up some of the men they have that you could use them?

Mr. Nelson replied that he thought not, as they had previously had some experience in that line. Private charities support many families of able-bodied men who are temporarily out of work, but who are too lazy to work.

Chairman: Could you use many of these men the year round?

Mr. Nelson: We do not attempt to pay wages or keep the family the year round; we pay them the prevailing wages, as our specifications call for, and find that the prevailing rate of wages is enough.

Chairman: Are the natives paid the same as the immigrants?

Mr. Nelson: The natives and immigrants are paid the prevailing wages of both.

Chairman: Mr. Goldsborough stated that he believed \$233, plus rent, per year was sufficient to support a family of six. Do you think the same?

Mr. Nelson: I do think they are getting that little in many instances. Most of the men work every day.

Chairman: Are you going to shut down in the winter?

Mr. Nelson replied that the greatest part of their work would be going on most of the winter. They have eight different tunnels, and the work in them, of course, is shoveling, etc.

The next speaker was Mr. Whitmer, of the American Pipe and Construction Company.

Chairman: Mr. Whitmer, we are desirous of getting as much information as possible regarding the skilled and unskilled laborers. A great proportion of your people, in the aggregate, are recently arrived immigrants, are they not?

Mr. Whitmer: One hundred and thirty-seven of them have been here from two to five years and the balance over five years.

Secretary: What are the lowest wages?

Mr. Whitmer: They are \$1.60 to \$2 a day.

Secretary: Have you made any attempts to get laborers from the City?

Mr. Whitmer: Yes, and they usually leave the next day, none of those which came from the charitable and labor organizations having stayed one week. The majority of them work only long enough to get sufficient money for their passage back.

Secretary: The City does not have any trouble, does it, in getting workers?

Mr. Whitmer: For the Rochester, Syracuse and Eastern Railway, 1,500 men were sent to Syracuse and Rochester on a Monday, and they left between Wednesday and Friday, and on Sunday a large portion of them left, most of them returning to New York. Within a week or so they had all gone, with the exception of 54 out of 1,500 men.

Chairman: The necessity for your taking immigrants is due to the fact that

you cannot get the laborers in New York City to do the laboring work outside of the City?

Mr. Whitmer: I do not believe if you paid them \$5 a day they would stay out of town.

Chairman: Well, suppose we get the private charities to stop giving these men food, etc., would it help matters?

Mr. Whitmer: I believe it would be the best thing, as then they would be compelled to work. I think that you will find that every contractor has had trouble along this line. The men are offered steady employment for 26 days in the month.

Chairman: Would you object to having our Commission refer these facts to the charitable organizations?

Mr. Whitmen: I would be willing, and in the spring, if you will send some one along to watch the laborers, I shall be willing to try as many as they can send up.

The next speaker was Mr. D. O'Connell, of the Bradley Construction Company.

Secretary: How many laborers do you employ?

Mr. O'Connell: About 300. My experience along the line of securing them has been about the same as of the men who have just spoken. Immigrants would be paid the same as any other men applying for work. We have tried frequently to get men from New York, but without success.

Chairman: Do you not think it is because the wages are too low?

Mr. O'Connell: Well, at least the American could not live at that price.

Chairman: What do you think a family of, say, five should have to have to exist?

Mr. O'Connell: Well, they could live on \$1.75 to \$2 a day.

Chairman: Do your people get from \$400 to \$500 a year?

Mr. O'Connell: The lowest rate is \$1.75 for practically the year around, work of 300 days in the year. A great many of the natives are getting from \$2 to \$2.50 a day.

Chairman: What I want to get at is, if in your judgment the immigrants have not lowered the rates of wages generally. Do the immigrants live in more crowded quarters than the Americans?

Mr. O'Connell: Not necessarily; the natives just simply do not seem to want to work.

Chairman: Would you be willing to try this proposition as before mentioned, of giving the natives a chance instead of the immigrants if you can get them; that is, if a body of natives is sent to you will you give them a trial?

Mr. O'Connell: Yes, we shall be very glad to try them.

Chairman: Suppose you paid \$3 a day, do you think it would attract a lot of natives to work on out-of-town jobs?

Mr. O'Connell: That is hard to say; with a great many, the more you pay them the worse they seem to be; we have quite a few such men, but they are not willing to work.

Mr. J. J. Canney, of Messrs. C. W. Blakely & Sons, was the next speaker.

Chairman: We shall be very glad to hear anything you may have to say.

Mr. Canney: We have at present about 300 laborers employed.

Chairman: Your average rate is \$2 a day, is it not?

Mr. Canney: I think the average rate is \$1.75, or running from \$1.75 to \$1.80 per day.

Chairman: Have you any suggestions to make on any of the questions already asked?

Mr. Canney: Nothing especially, except in conclusion I might say that I believe as long as these laborers have a group of people supporting them, the City of New York will have no one to do its manual labor.

Secretary: Suppose these immigrants were all organized into a union and would not work for less than \$3 a day, what would you do?

Mr. Canney: I suppose we would have to pay it.

Chairman: Do you advance their wages at all after they have been with you for some time?

Mr. Canney: We pick out certain men who seem more intelligent and raise them accordingly.

Chairman: If you started out with about 300 men, how many of them would you have by the end of the year?

Mr. Canney: Probably 100 of them would follow us from place to place; I think out of the 300 men which we employed over a year ago, at least one-half are still with us. A good many of the men are single.

Chairman: Regarding the housing of these men, the law requires a certain number of feet of air for each man. Is this strictly adhered to?

Mr. Canney: Yes, absolutely; only two men are allowed in a room. Of course, the work we are now doing is going to last several years.

Chairman: Do you think it would be wise to give these men a little social life and let them live in groups, carrying them a short distance to their work?

Mr. Canney: It is pretty hard to transport the men for any distance; they prefer to have their camps near the work. The social life would aid, I suppose, somewhat in holding the men. Conditions are, however, very much better today than they were during the past ten years. I would suggest that those men who want work come up and try it.

Chairman: You are counting on single men?

Mr. Canney: Most of them are single, or have families in Italy. We now have more families than we anticipated. There is a big surplus of laborers in New York now of the skilled and the unskilled ones, and there are about forty contractors on this Catskill Aqueduct and each of them could probably use from 10 to 100 men more than they have, according to the size of their respective contracts. The majority of our men are kept working the entire year. But there are plenty of them who work a couple of weeks and then they pass up from one contractor to another.

Analysis of Charities in New York City by Boroughs, 1907.

It requires a Charities Directory of several hundred pages to describe the many societies of New York City.

There were in 1907 46 societies to give relief by employment, but no Municipal Employment Office.

There were 176 societies to furnish food, fuel, clothing and general relief, including transportation, 116 of them being located in Manhattan and The Bronx.

There were 92 fresh air charities, 80 in Manhattan.

There were two relief societies for national calamities.

There were 80 societies for the relief of foreigners, an enormous majority of them in Manhattan and The Bronx.

There were 55 societies for nursing and the care of the sick in their homes, 54 of these in Manhattan and The Bronx, also 12 relief burial societies, five-sixths of them in Manhattan.

All of these relief societies mentioned are classified in the Charities Directory, published by the New York Charity Organization Society under Care and Relief of Needy Families in Their Homes. There were 571 of those benefit institutions in this class in 1907, of which 475 were in Manhattan and The Bronx.

There were 132 institutions to provide relief for Destitute, Neglected and Delinquent Children, 93 again in Manhattan and The Bronx and 147 Institutions provided relief in permanent and temporary homes for adults, 115 located in Manhattan and The Bronx.

There were 69 institutions for the Defective, with 87 in Manhattan and The Bronx, and an alarming total of 393 institutions for preventive social work, with about five-sixths in Manhattan and The Bronx; Brooklyn and Queens, however, have eighty, while Richmond has only three.

The treatment of delinquent adults engaged the services of 42 institutions with the prominence of Manhattan and The Bronx again asserting itself with 35; 50 educational institutions engaged in supervisory educational work are domiciled in New York, 39 of these in Manhattan and The Bronx.

Some of these are, of course, national and international societies, but most of them are at least interested in work in New York City.

There are also 653 churches of different denominations in Manhattan and The Bronx, 479 in Brooklyn and Queens, and 68 in Richmond. In addition there are 167 societies for religious and moral work in Manhattan and The Bronx, 42 in Brooklyn and Queens and one in Richmond.

A large proportion of these institutions, however, are getting help from New York City in the way at least of exemption from taxation, which exemption often amounts to many thousands of dollars. (Data secured from the Charities Directory published by the Charity Organization Society of New York.)

Study of Tax Exempt Properties in New York.

In 1906 the property of charitable and religious institutions exempt from taxation in each of the Boroughs of New York was reported by the Federation of Churches and Christian Organizations to be as follows:

Manhattan	\$161,340,600 00
Brooklyn	38,015,925 00
The Bronx	14,534,850 00

Queens	3,819,675 00
Richmond	3,415,000 00

Total \$241,126,060 00

For the same year they report the value of City owned property for various purposes as follows:

	Schools.	Libraries.	Parks.
Manhattan	\$38,274,000 00	\$13,632,500 00	\$314,785,500 00
Brooklyn	15,984,220 00	595,800 00	68,645,650 00
The Bronx	6,090,900 00	96,000 00	26,433,900 00
Queens	3,573,100 00	75,000 00	1,296,000 00
Richmond	1,406,175 00	43,500 00	20,000 00
	\$65,328,395 00	\$14,442,800 00	\$411,181,050 00

In 1906 the Federation states, "On the lower east side of New York live 15.1 per cent. of the entire population of the City. The percentage of the whole religious and charitable property of the City exempted from taxation located within that area is 5.7 per cent., while the school properties are 21.2 per cent., the fire department stations 18.6 per cent., the police stations 18 per cent., the park properties 8.8 per cent., the public baths 32.5 per cent., and the libraries 1.3 per cent.

The following tables give the exempt value of land and improvements in 1910 of property of charitable institutions (including Blackwells Island, valued at \$11,000,000), and a classification of institutions.

List of Classes of Institutions Exempt from Taxation, Assessed Value in 1910.

Classes of Institutions.	Manhattan.	Bronx.	Brooklyn.
Hospitals	42	2	21
Dispensaries and Infirmaries	15	1	5
Orphan Asylums and Homes for Children.....	18	7	5
Day Nurseries	15	..	4
Settlements	13	..	2
Relief Society	7	1	4
Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children.....	1	..	1
Reformatories	4	2	2
Houses for Adults	10	1	10
Children's Aid Society.....	1*	..	1*
Salvation Army	1	..	1
Missions	4	..	3
Lodging Houses	2
Society to Protect Animals from Cruelty.....	1	..	1
Miscellaneous	13	2	7

*With branches.

Exempt values in 1910 of charitable institutions, public and private, in Manhattan and The Bronx and sections of Brooklyn.

Manhattan—		
Land		\$31,121,000 00
Improvements		21,967,850 00
Total.....		\$53,088,850 00
The Bronx—		
Land		\$3,524,900 00
Improvements		2,954,200 00
Total.....		\$6,479,100 00
Brooklyn—		
Land		2,509,250 00
Assessment, Sections 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9, improvements.....		5,888,100 00
Total		\$8,397,350 00
Land		\$37,221,000 00
Improvements		30,744,300 00
Grand total		\$67,965,300 00

The boundaries of the sections included in Brooklyn are: East River, Newtown Creek, Meeker avenue, Union avenue, Broadway, East New York avenue, Ocean Parkway, 9th avenue, 8th avenue and 60th street.

Total Amount of Property of Various Institutions Exempt from Taxation in Manhattan, The Bronx and Part of Brooklyn.

Classes.	Assessed Land Values.	Assessed Improve- ment Values	Total As- sessed Values.
Manhattan—			
Orphan Asylums and Children Homes....	\$2,402,500 00	\$1,219,500 00	\$3,622,000 00
Homes for the Adult Indigent.....	1,083,000 00	1,038,000 00	2,121,000 00
Reformatories	143,000 00	150,000 00	293,000 00
Total	\$3,628,500 00	\$2,407,500 00	\$6,036,000 00
The Bronx—			
Orphan Asylums and Children Homes....	\$1,986,600 00	\$2,147,300 00	\$4,133,900 00
Homes for the Adult Indigent.....	818,500 00	442,500 00	1,211,000 00
Reformatories	16,000 00	1,000 00	17,000 00
Total	\$2,821,100 00	\$2,590,800 00	\$5,411,900 00
Brooklyn—			
Orphan Asylums and Children Homes....	\$541,000 00	\$631,000 00	\$1,172,000 00
Homes for the Adult Indigent.....	415,900 00	613,900 00	1,029,800 00
Reformatories	83,500 00	11,700 00	95,200 00
Total	\$1,040,400 00	\$1,256,600 00	\$2,297,000 00
Grand totals—			
Orphan Asylums and Children Homes....	\$4,930,100 00	\$3,997,800 00	\$8,927,900 00
Homes for the Adult Indigent	2,317,400 00	2,094,400 00	3,411,800 00
Reformatories	242,500 00	162,700 00	405,200 00
	\$7,490,000 00	\$6,254,900 00	\$13,744,900 00

(Districts bounded by East River, Newtown Creek, Meeker avenue, Union avenue, Broadway, East New York avenue, Ocean Parkway, 9th avenue, 8th avenue and 60th street.)

The following table shows the amount of rent that must be paid to net 8 per cent. shops, etc., with a given density of population per acre and with land of indicated Table Showing the Comparative Rent for a Year, per Family, on Land With the Given Paid for Stores, etc.) on an Acre, and Allowing Eight Per Cent. Net Return on Square Feet:

	\$2 per square foot, \$5,000 per lot.	\$3 per square foot, \$7,500 per lot.	\$4 per square foot, \$10,000 per lot.	\$5 per square foot, \$12,500 per lot.
250 per acre.....	\$121 96	\$182 94	\$243 92	\$304 90
500 per acre.....	60 98	91 47	121 96	152 45
750 per acre.....	40 65	60 98	81 31	101 63
1,000 per acre.....	30 39	45 78	60 98	76 22

on the value of land alone, and granting that one-eighth of the total rent is paid by value per square foot.

Density of Population (Counting Five to a Family and One-eighth of the Rent the Land With the Land Worth, per Square Foot or for a Lot Containing 2,500

\$6 per square foot, \$15,000 per lot.	\$7 per square foot, \$19,500 per lot.	\$8 per square foot, \$20,000 per lot.	\$9 per square foot, \$22,500 per lot.	\$10 per square foot, \$25,000 per lot.	\$11 per square foot, \$27,500 per lot.
\$365 98	\$426 86	\$487 84	\$548 82	\$609 80	\$670 78
182 99	213 43	243 99	274 41	304 90	335 39
121 96	142 29	162 61	182 94	203 27	223 59
91 49	104 43	121 98	137 20	152 45	167 49

It will be noted that a land value of over \$2 per square foot involves a rental on the basis, with a density of 250 per acre, of \$121.96 per family of five for rent of the land alone, which is as much as a family with an income of \$600 or less per year should spend on their total rent for a home, not a tenement.

In other words high land values inevitably mean congestion of population among poor people—so that cheap land is essential to proper housing of wage earners and others with a small income.

Land values in New York, however, have a capitalized congestion value, i. e., the land is valued on the basis of the rent that could be secured at a reasonable rent, but with a density of population who can pay only \$150 to \$200 rent per year of from 300 to 1,300 per acre in round figures, the latter being the ordinary maximum density per acre in a six-story new law tenement, fully occupied.

INDIVIDUALS WHO APPEARED BEFORE THE NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION ON CONGESTION OF POPULATION AND SUBCOMMITTEES THEREOF.

Arthur Arctander, Charles Francis Adams, Stanley D. Adshead, Benjamin Brown, Hugh W. Becker, John E. Bowe, Milton Butterfield, Dr. Henry W. Berg, Dr. Charles S. Bernheimer, Mr. Blockman, A. J. Boulton, Miss Mina M. Bruere, J. McKee Borden, Edward M. Bassett, Howard Bradstreet, Ernest Buckland, Major James A. Bell, Hon. William S. Bennet, W. Bretigan, Ernest K. Coulter, Gilbert Colgate, Mrs. Julius Henry Cohen, Mr. Cornwall, B. F. Cresson, Jr., L. P. Coleman, J. P. Coughlin, James L. Cowles, Charles N. Chadwick, H. C. Carrell, John Foster Carr, Contessa Lisi Cipriani, Hon. George Cromwell, Mr. Davis, E. P. Doyle, Dr. Annie S. Daniel, Ira J. Ettinger, W. H. Fletcher, Mr. Foster, Mr. Furst, Adam E. Fischer, Homer Folks, George B. Ford, J. N. Francolini, Mr. Goodrich, Wm. Grier, John F. Geis, Dr. William H. Guilfooy, Frederic D. Green, A. N. Gitterman, James P. Gernon, Samuel P. Gompers, William B. Griffith, Hon. Robert W. Heberd, Mrs. Julian Heath, Hon. Frederick C. Howe, William E. Harmon, R. T. Haskins, James T. Hoile, Prof. Franklin N. Hooper, Dr. Hale, J. P. Harder, Frederick T. Hallock, Dr. John B. Huber, Frederick L. Hoffman, Colonel Henstreet, Dr. Woods Hutchinson, Luis Jackson, J. Harris Jones, Dr. Jaquo, James Jenkins, Jr., Miss Mabel H. Kittredge, Mrs. Florence Kelley, F. Kunzmann, Miss Frances A. Kellor, Dr. Abraham Korn, Orlando F. Lewis, Max S. Levine, Hon. Nelson P. Lewis, Edgar J. Levey, Dr. Walter Laidlaw, Alexander Law, E. C. Meurer, Rev. J. Howard Melish, Hon. Frank Mann, Dr. Henry Moskowitz, Hon. William H. Maxwell, Hon. John Purroy Mitchel, Marcus M. Marks, Helen Marot, L. M. Maguire, Hon. Rudolph P. Miller, Hon. John J. Murphy, Louis Marshall, William I. Nichols, James J. O'Brien, Herbert O'Brien, Mrs. Ernest Poole, W. Frank Persons, A. C. Pleydell, Edward Polak, Josiah C. Pumpelly, John M. Paris, Henry Parsons, Dr. Wm. F. Pratt, Louis H. Pink, Dr. Wm. H. Parks, Wilbur C. Phillips, A. M. Prawl, Mr. Quinn, Dr. Jane E. Robbins, Miss Julia Richman, Maximillian M. Ruttenau, James R. Rourke, Mr. Robertson, Miss Grace Strachan, Robert Seelar, J. M. Schumacher, Mrs. I. Schwerin, A. H. Spencer, Joseph Seff, Abe Schoenfield, Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman, Mrs. V. G. Simkhovitch, I. N. Phelps Stokes, Dr. Albert Sudekum, Dr. Antonio Stella, Cyrus L. Sulzburger, Dr. M. Serrati, Prof. Henry R. Seager, Lajos Steiner, Max Thaten, Louis I. Tribus, Arthur S. Tuttle, D. L. Turner, Frank E. Tilby, W. B. Vernam, Lawrence Veitler, Miss Mary Van Kleeck, Hon. John Williams, Max Walinsky, George Wibbecam, Hon. Judson G. Wall, Miss Elizabeth Williams, Hon. William Williams, Delos F. Wilcox, Hon. Travis H. Whitney, A. W. Winter, Egerton Winthrop, Miss Elizabeth C. Watson, Prof. C. E. Winslow, Morris D. Waldman, Miss Lillian D. Wald.

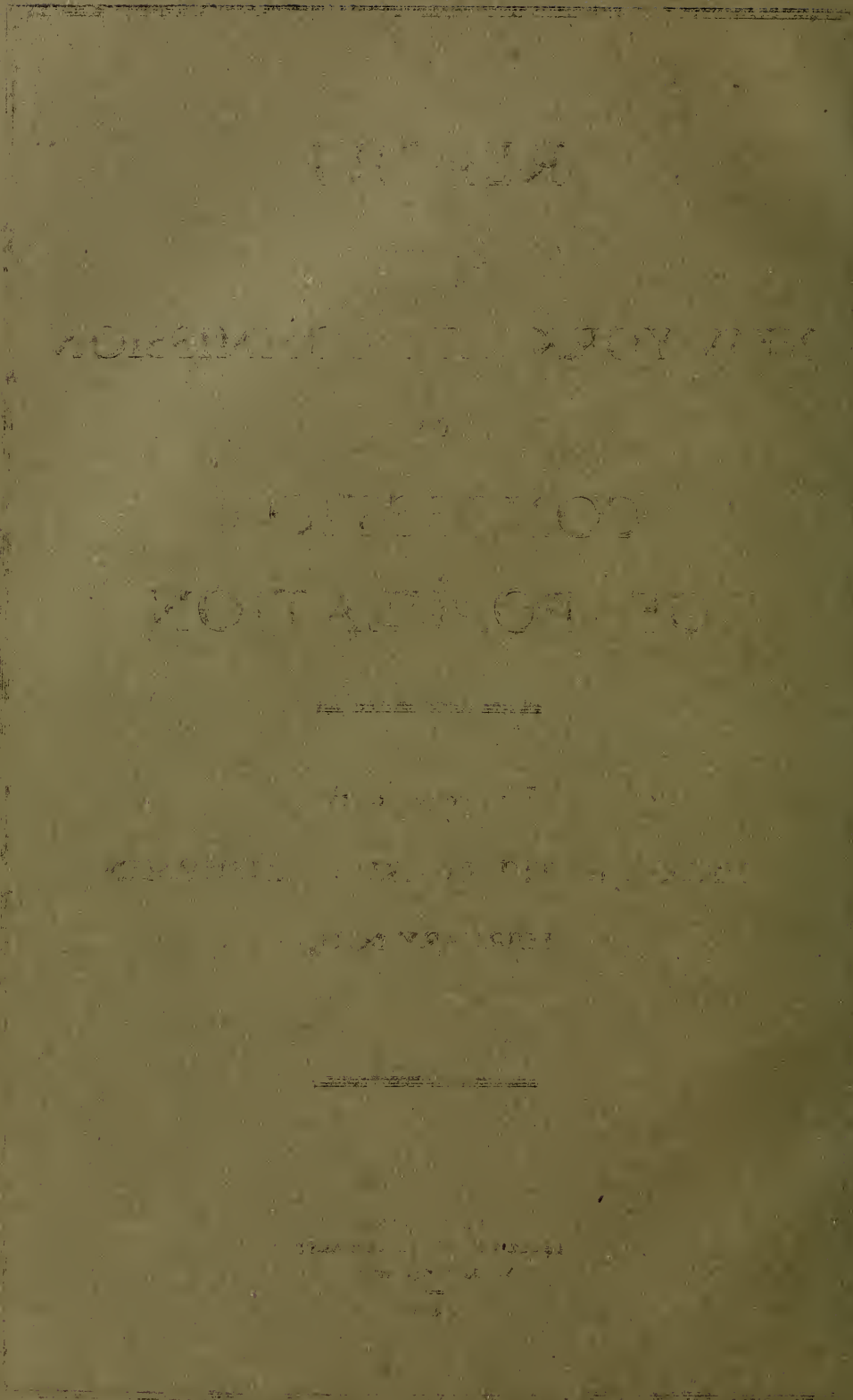
REPORT
OF THE
NEW YORK CITY COMMISSION
ON
CONGESTION
OF POPULATION

Transmitted to the
MAYOR and THE BOARD OF ALDERMEN

FEBRUARY 28, 1911

NEW YORK:
LECOUVER PRESS COMPANY
No. 51 VESKY STREET.
1911.

627



THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK

LIBRARY OF THE NEW YORK



